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THE WORLD WAR

FOR

LIBERTY

A Comprehensive and Authentic History of the War by Land, Sea and Air

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THREE BOOKS IN ONE VOLUME

Book 1. Military History of the War
" 2. World Issues of the War
" 3. America's Part in the War

Editors

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PREFACE.

In presenting "The World War for Liberty" to the public, the Publishers desire to state that it is an invaluable contribution to the permanent and abiding literature of the war. It is more. It is the Story of the War as a whole, written with an insight into the conflicting issues which makes it as remarkable as its clear and easy style makes it readable.

The Editors are peculiarly fitted for their task. Dr. Francis Rolt-Wheeler has been writing books in co-operation with the American and European governments for many years, he has lived in France, in Russia and in the Balkans, he knows European capitals and politics at first hand. He has contributed widely to the literature of the war and possesses the confidence of military, naval and diplomatic authorities. Mr. Frederick E. Drinker is an American of the purest stock, a keen student of Americanism and a well-known writer. He has published widely on American phases of the war—his book on the *Lusitania* is a classic—and he possesses a wide outlook on the future of the United States.

Many years must elapse before the conditions brought about by the world war can subside. For many years to come the issues dealt with in this book must necessarily be points in dispute. The world upheaval has been too great for its settlement to have final immediacy. New republics must be put on trial. New frontiers must beget new passions. Liberty is a plant of slow growth among peoples unaccustomed to it. "The World War for Liberty" will do more than explain what has been, it will help to guide Americans to an understanding of the issues which still remain, and which, in one form or another, will trouble the world for many years to come.

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INTRODUCTION.

There is a gripping need for such a book as "The World War for Liberty," written, as it is, to show Americans the dark forces that were behind the war, the desperate gallantry of the nations who fought therein and the great goal of democracy which lies beyond. The book is needed because America and the Americans have entered upon an era of their history wherein they have become a world power. As such, world problems must be grappled with; as a self-governing people, Americans must understand those problems.

This book is by no means a mere History of the Events of the War. It is this, but it is far more. It is a book designed to reveal the war. Every reader of the daily newspapers during the four years of the war realized that there were half-told questions of diplomacy, court intrigues, backstairs politics, racial antipathies and patriotic theories of every sort and description underlying the actual happenings on the field of battle. Some of these were fraught with vital importance, as when the overturn in Russia imperiled the Allies' cause, as when France and England compelled the abdication of King Constantine of Greece, as when America realized that honor demanded the drawing of the sword of justice. Such topics do not belong necessarily to a mere narrative history, but in the larger sense of a world war for Liberty, they are all-important.

For this reason the Editors have placed the world war before their readers in three parts: Book I, which gives the military history of the war, as a historian would write it; Book II, which gives the world issues of the war, as they bore on every country directly or indirectly involved, and in which will be found analyzed such topics as Alsace-Lorraine, Schleswig-Holstein, Italia Irredenta, Macedonia, Bessarabia, Dobrudja, the Czecho-Slovak and Jugo-Slav peoples, Bolshevism, Junkerdom and the rest; and Book III, dealing with America's part in the war, showing the sublimity of self-sacrifice with which the soldiers and people of the

United States set their whole hearts to the task when once convinced that the call of war was the call of Right.

A cold, tame, impersonal record of such a war would not be an American book. It is because of a profound conviction that the war was inevitable, that it was forced on the world by selfish desires and unjustifiable aggression, that it was necessary for civilization and for the cause of liberty that peace-loving nations should beat the plowshare into the sword, that this book has been written. That it may further enlighten America and that it may enhance the pride of the people of the United States in the rightfulness of their cause is the aim and purpose of

THE EDITORS.

FOREWORD

In all the struggles of man against man and nation against nation since the beginning of time itself there has been no counterpart of "the World War for Liberty" which ended on November 11, 1918, with the collapse of the German Empire and the abdication of the autocratic Emperor William Hohenzollern, followed by his flight into Holland, leaving a train of desolation and ruin in his wake.

No other great empire ever came to so sharp an ending and no emperor was more ignominiously driven from his throne. The vaunted power which he wielded was wrested from him and the conceit of Kaiserism and Junkerism which he personified was crushed to the earth.

Yet these are but incidents of the most momentous achievement in the world's history. The fall of German autocracy marked not merely the end of an empire but a decisive victory for forces of the universe holding to the principle that just governments derive their power from the consent of the governed.

All down the ages the contest has been waged for acceptance between the irreconcilable conceptions of government—autocracy and democracy. The German Kaiser—a mere creature of an intolerable system—would deny to men the right to govern themselves and by force of arms subject them to his will and perpetuate a decaying form of government.

In the bygone days of ignorance and superstition it was part of the rudimentary political game for selfish class groups to make people believe that some arch conspirator, proclaimed a ruler, derived his authority from a just God, and that it was part of their religious duty to obey. Under the cloak of religion unscrupulous potentates practiced inconceivable cruelties until an enlightened world demanded the separation of religion and State.

Just as in the barbaric ages the Kaiser sought to convince his people and the world that a God-given power was his. He and his ilk

dominated a peoples who had imbibed this teaching and accepted his imperial mandates. Those who refused to recognize his "God-given right to rule" were proclaimed his enemies and the enemies of his people. The swing of his rule was circumscribed by the independent thoughts of millions outside of his domain.

His forebears and the ring of which Kaiser William was the representative saw the circle growing smaller about them—saw nations rent and peoples fight to the death for freedom—and they began to create a fighting machine which would support them in their unhallowed positions and provide force to break the encroaching circle and overrun the earth.

Peace-loving nations sought to avoid an inevitable conflict between the forces adhering to two diametrically opposed theories of government until the Emperor, with his military machine made ready, seized upon the unfortunate assassination of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir apparent to the throne of Austria, at the close of June, 1914, as a pretext for war and set out to subject peaceful nations.

Thus started the struggle which involved twenty-eight nations of the world, having an aggregate population of nearly 1,600,000,000, or practically eleven-twelfths of the human race, entailing a loss of life approximating 10,000,000, with nearly three times as many wounded, and an estimated cost of $250,000,000,000.

To those who would have a simple, understandable and comprehensive story of the war, reciting the sacrifices and struggles of nations and the heroism of those who fought not for glory, but to defend their ideals and make men free, this volume is offered with the hope that it will prove a source of information and pleasure and fill a widespread need.

Book I

MILITARY HISTORY
OF THE
WORLD WAR

Editor
FRANCIS ROLT-WHEELER, Ph. D.

CHAPTER I.

THE END AND THE BEGINNING.

Collapse of the House of Hohenzollern and the Downfall of Imperialism—Empires Totter and Kings are Unseated—Gathering War Clouds—The Estrangement of Serbia and Austria—The Assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand—The Storm Breaks—Declarations of War.

"And everyone that heareth these sayings of mine, and doeth them not, shall be likened unto a foolish man, which built his house upon the sand:

"And the rain descended and the floods came, and the winds blew and beat upon that house; and it fell: and great was the fall of it."

Matt. VII—26-27.

SO fell the Imperial house of Germany on Monday, November 11, 1918. With a crash that echoed 'round the earth it collapsed, bringing glorious peace out of the greatest struggle of men in all history.

Builded, as was the house of that other foolish man, upon an unstable foundation, the imperialistic structure of which William Hohenzollern, Emperor of Germany, and his forebears were the architects, swayed and rocked in the world storms which swept about it and came tumbling to the earth a wreck.

Two shots fired in the little city of Serajevo, Bosnia, on June 28, 1914, pierced the ominous clouds which hung over central Europe threatening the peace and liberty of men, and marked the beginning of the storm, which in its gathering frenzy, rent the houses of Hapsburg in Austria and Romanoff in Russia; sent the Emperor Francis Joseph to his death, the unfortunate Czar Nicholas to an untimely grave; battered from their thrones King Constantine of Greece, King Ludwig of Bavaria, King Ferdinand and King Boris of Bulgaria, the Emperor Charles of Austria, and left seatless the German Kaiser.

It gathered into the vortex of conflict twenty-eight nations of the world with a total population of nearly 1,600,000,000, or all but one-twelfth of the entire human race, cost 10,000,000 of lives and visited injury upon 17,000,000 more, besides involving untold suffering, and incalculable loss of property and the expenditure of more than $200,000,000,000.

Christians and Jews, Mohammedans and Buddists fought with and against each other; fathers were set against sons and brothers against brothers; men burrowed into the ground, dived into the seas and soared into the air to gain points of vantage in the universal struggle which was brought about by the ambition of the Kaiser and the Junker classes of Germany to spread the mantle of Imperialism over nations and create a world empire that would resist the growing forces of democracy over all the earth.

The ambition was one borne of generations of training and sought but an opportunity to give it sway. Nations are not longer permitted, however, to wage war for mere conquest, and even Germany, prepared and waiting to strike a blow at peaceful peoples, must needs find an excuse for stretching out her military arms and seizing coveted lands.

The pretext for war was the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir apparent to the Austrian throne, whose appearance in the little city of Serajevo, Bosnia, drew fire from the pistol of a Serbian fanatic.

The Pretext for War.

It was a beautiful Sunday morning in the Bosnian capital and the city was astir with expectancy. The Archduke, who had been attending military manoeuvers in the vicinity, had announced his intention of inspecting troops in the city. The streets of Serajevo were thronged with picturesquely dressed men and women, for it was Serbian fete day. The Archduke and his consort, the Duchess of Hohenberg, had been met at the railway station by the local Governor and his staff and were slowly motoring through the crowded thoroughfares to the scene of the military inspection when a package fell upon the open hood of the royal car. The Archduke seized and tossed the bundle to the street where it exploded, injuring several lesser dignitaries and military attendants who were in an escort car.

The bomb thrower had been arrested, the Archduke had delivered an address and was on his way to visit the victims of the bomb when a second explosive missile was hurled at his car. When it failed to explode the man who threw it—a Serbian student—rushed forward and began firing at the royal party. One bullet from his flashing pistol struck the Archduke in the neck, another marked the Duchess for its

victim. Both became unconscious and died shortly after being removed to the Government House.

How the assassination of an Austrian prince by a misguided Serbian student could be made a pretext for war is a story of intrigue, conspiracy and abuse of power involving the history of Austria and the German Empire and of races, and of the Balkan states with their wars and uprisings to throw off the yoke of autocracy and secure independence. The complexities of the situation as developed to this point in world history may be traced with interest in the chapters of this work dealing with the parts played by the various nations.

Serbia, with her territory greatly increased by the war with Turkey in 1912-13, and her national spirit aroused, had become the scene of a "Greater Serbia" movement, largely directed against Austria-Hungary, which held Bosnia, Croatia and Herzegovina, land which by Nationality and by speech were Serbian, and which in control of Austria barred Serbia from the sea.

Serbia and Austria Alienated.

The estrangement of Serbia and Austria was primarily due to the latter's high-handed annexation of Bosnia in 1908 and the thwarting of Serbia's desire to secure an outlet to the Adriatic in 1913. Serbia's ambition was therefore not in keeping with Germany's plans for the Berlin-Bagdad railroad, which must run through Serbia, and conceived in the German mind the control of Serbia by Austria.

The theory that a principal is responsible for the action of his agent was applied to Serbia, and the nation was held to be culpable in the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, because the assassin was a Serbian, although an Austrian subject, and even though the crime was committed in Bosnia, under Austrian control.

There were at the time four groups or divisions among the continental powers. Germany, Austria and Italy were bound together in what was known as the Triple Alliance, and Great Britain, France and Russia stood side by side in the Triple Entente. A smaller group, whose neutrality was guaranteed by treaties, was Belgium, Denmark, Holland and the Duchy of Luxemburg, sandwiched between Germany and France and Belgium, together with Switzerland. There were in a fourth group the Balkan nations, including Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, Greece, Turkey and Roumania, more or less closely drawn to

Russia, though Germany had secured a foothold in Turkey. With these stood the Iberian nations Spain and Portugal.

The immediate train of events which gathered the war clouds over Europe goes back to the interference of other powers in the adjustment of affairs between Russia and Turkey in 1877. The nations had agreed upon a larger Bulgaria and an enlarged and independent Serbia, but at the Berlin conference, which Austria had taken the initiative in calling, Austria sought to have as much of the Christian territory of southeast Europe kept under the domination of the Turks.

Fearing the influence of Russia with her increasing strength over Serbia, Montenegro and Bulgaria, and with the object of ultimately acquiring the territory from the Turks, Austria secured by agreement at the conference a trusteeship over Bosnia and Herzegovina, and the right to temporary occupation and management of the territories.

The Balkan War.

Later, when Russia was defeated by the Japanese and the Young Turks reformed their government, Austria no longer fearing Russia, but feeling that the Turks might demand the evacuation of Bosnia, notified the powers represented at the Berlin conference that it had been decided to make Bosnia and Herzegovina part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Serbia's hope of getting an outlet to the Adriatic was blasted, and she was greatly embittered.

Then came the war in which Serbia joined with little Montenegro and Greece to drive the Turks out of Europe. The great powers sought to prevent the conflict but without avail and the Balkan war is a matter of history. Serbia for her participation in the picturesque war was to secure as her share of conquered territory part of Albania, but again Austria stepped in, and working with Germany secured the operation of a plan which made Albania a separate state or principality with a German prince to rule over it.

Serbia was further embittered and demanded of Bulgaria part of the territory assigned to that country to compensate her for the loss of Albania. Bulgaria stood upon her rights and the second phase of the Balkan war was precipitated, Serbia joining forces with Greece against Bulgaria.

When the smoke of battle cleared away Serbia had acquired

additional territory to the south, but she was still landlocked and cut off from the sea by Bosnia, Montenegro and Albania.

There was in consequence of these events a strong anti-Austrian sentiment in Serbia and Austria stood ready to chastise her belligerent neighbor. In fact, in August, 1913, a year before the great conflict started, Austria had communicated to Italy the fact that she proposed to attack Serbia. Italy refused to join with Austria in the attack and urged Germany to dissuade Austria from her purpose. Germany, thus made aware that she could not receive the support of Italy, declined to begin the war at that time. She hastened, however, to complete the Berlin-Bagdad railway and the rebuilding of the Kiel canal, necessary to her scheme of world-wide expansion.

After the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, however, Germany with Austria formulated a policy which when adopted in connection with the tragedy would be sure to precipitate war. Germany's immediate connection is traced to a conference held in Potsdam on July 5, a week after the assassination, and which was attended by the Kaiser who hurried home from a hunting trip, together with statesmen, diplomatic, military, financial and industrial leaders of Germany. At this time it was announced that Germany would be ready for war in a few weeks.

Austria's Terms to Serbia.

The demands presented to Serbia by Austria in reparation for the slaying of Francis Ferdinand provided for the unconditional acceptance of the terms within forty-eight hours and were regarded by world diplomats to be the most arrogant and insulting ever presented by one nation to another. One of the provisions was that the Serbian government should compel the dissolution of the society Narodna Obrana (the chief society of the country for Serbian propaganda), as well as all other organizations that might engage in propaganda against Austria-Hungary, and to further eliminate from teaching and from the schools, anything which might serve to foment propaganda against Austria. It was demanded, too, that in bringing the slayers of the Archduke to justice and that in the suppression of the Pan-Serbian movement—the Greater Serbia idea—Serbia accept the collaboration of Austrian officials.

Serbia accepted all of the demands on July 25, but denied to

Austria the right to exercise judicial authority in Serbia. Diplomatic exchanges began at once between the various powers to avert war and Italy made it known that she was not in sympathy with the Austria-Hungary note to Serbia.

Finally, on July 27, Austria issued a note in which she said that Serbia's acquiescence to her demands was unsatisfactory and "filled with the spirit of dishonesty," and on the following day, July 28, 1914, declared war on Serbia.

That Germany was bent upon war was made clear by the fact that when Sir Edward Grey, British Secretary for Foreign Affairs, sent peace proposals for a Council of Europe to both the Kaiser and the Czar, the Kaiser's answer was an order for mobilization and an ultimatum to Russia to stop mobilizing.

France and Italy had supported England in the proposal but this did not prevent Germany from demanding of France a statement as to her attitude in the event of a Russo-German war. This was on July 30, and the same day Austria invaded Serbia. On the following night military law was proclaimed throughout Germany and Russia ordered a general mobilization.

The Invasion of Belgium.

Personal messages meanwhile passed between the Kaiser and the Czar, to both of whom King George sent appeals for peace, but on August 1, and while Austria was still negotiating with the Czar, Emperor William declared that "the sword had been forced into his hand" and declared war on Russia. France, a lender of money to Russia, and party to the Triple agreement, ordered a mobilization of military forces.

There was no longer doubt that Europe was to be shaken by a great conflict nor was the possibility lessened when, on August 2, the Kaiser sent an ultimatum to King Albert of Belgium demanding free passage of his armies through Belgium. The same day German forces crossed the frontiers of Luxemburg and France, and Germany declared war on France.

On August 4 the German troops invaded Belgium, though bound by treaty to respect and preserve the latter's neutrality. Belgium appealed to England to preserve her neutrality and the latter demanded the withdrawal of German troops. Failing to obtain satisfaction Eng-

land declared war on Germany to the latter's dismay, the German Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg expressing himself as unwilling to believe that England would go to war "just for a scrap of paper," an expression that gave the world one of its first glimpses of how little honor had to do with the conduct of affairs in Germany.

The die was now cast and the train of events started which led around the earth. Austria was already bombarding Belgrade, the plain of Luxemburg was overrun by Uhlans and the frontier guards of Lorraine were making their reply to the Kaiser's challenge. Europe was aflame. The storm had broken.

CHAPTER II.

THE MAILED FIST STRIKES BELGIUM.

The First Shots of the War—The Luxemburg Frontier—Defence of Liége—Permanent Fortifications Become a Useless Art—Siege Howitzers—Two Small Forts Stay the Onrush of the Hosts of Mars—Fall of Namur—The Archers of Mons—The Might of Charleroi.

THE utter disregard by Germany of the neutrality rights of innocent and peaceful Belgium was the incident of action at this critical moment which was destined to bind the whole world in bitter struggle.

It was Germany's plan to crush France before Russia could mobilize and then turn eastward to crush the forces of the Czar. Time was an important factor in this military plan and unfortunately the quickest and easiest path over which the Germans could pass on their way to Paris was through Belgium. Therefore all consideration for the country of King Albert was thrust aside. In the German Reichstag the Imperial chancellor defended this course, and admitting the wrong declared, "We are now in a state of necessity, and necessity knows no law."

Hostile Entrance Into Belgium.

Straightway one of the greatest horrors of all history began—the invasion and devastation of Belgium. The German forces had previously entered the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, which was in a state of disarmed neutrality under the protection of its neighbors. Its sole defence consisted of about 300 volunteers and gendarmes.

When the vanguard of the German forces—several motor cars filled with officers and men—came into the once powerful city of Luxemburg and demanded the right of passage through the little country, the Grand Duchess motored up and turned her car across the roadway to bar the soldiers' progress. She was ordered home and her chauffeur was compelled to turn away. A minister of State who had made protest was laughed to scorn and the gendarmes were swept aside.

On August 4, when hostilities began, the Belgian army was still

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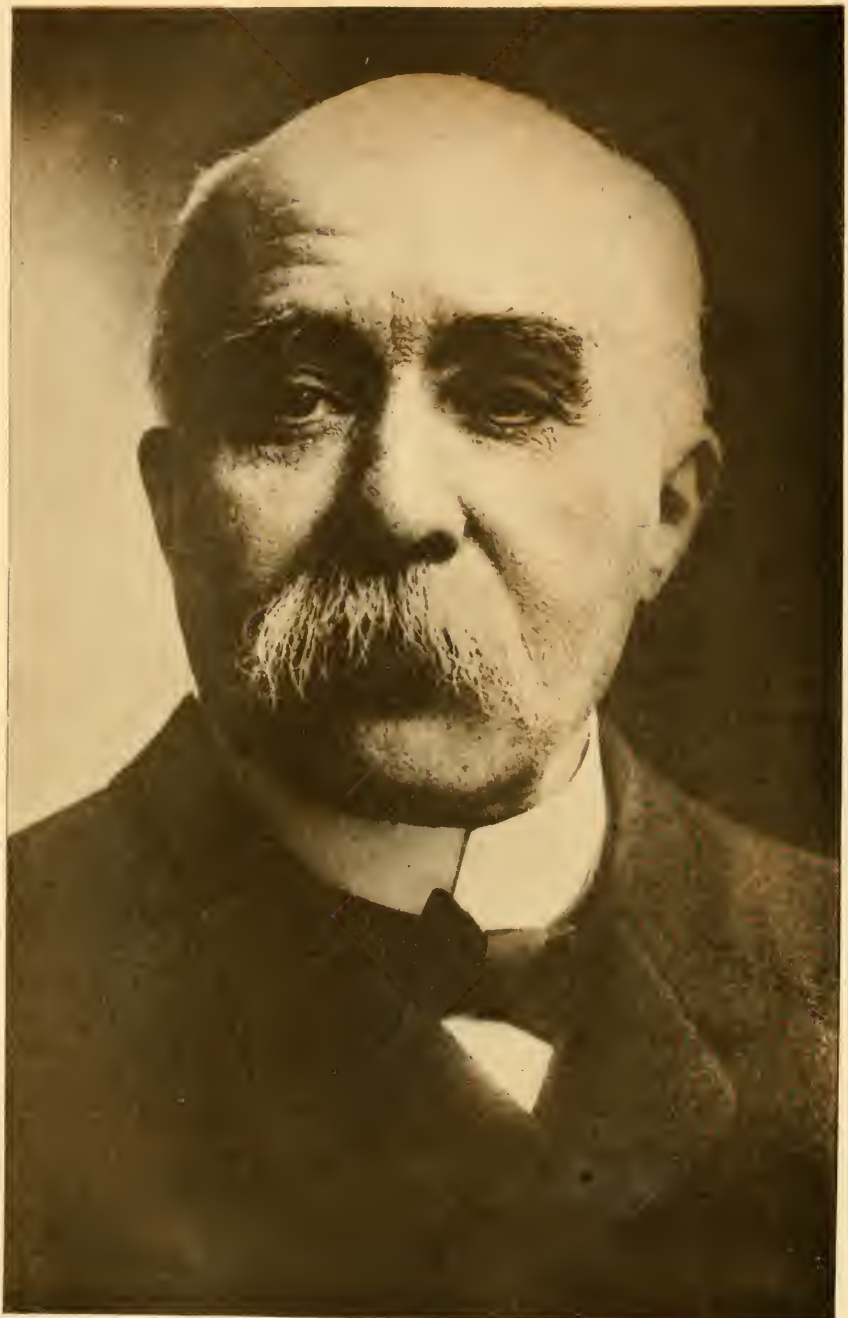
WOODROW WILSON, *President U. S. A.*

His record in the World War, for Democracy, is known throughout the world. His determined efforts brought forth results which were crowned with glory.



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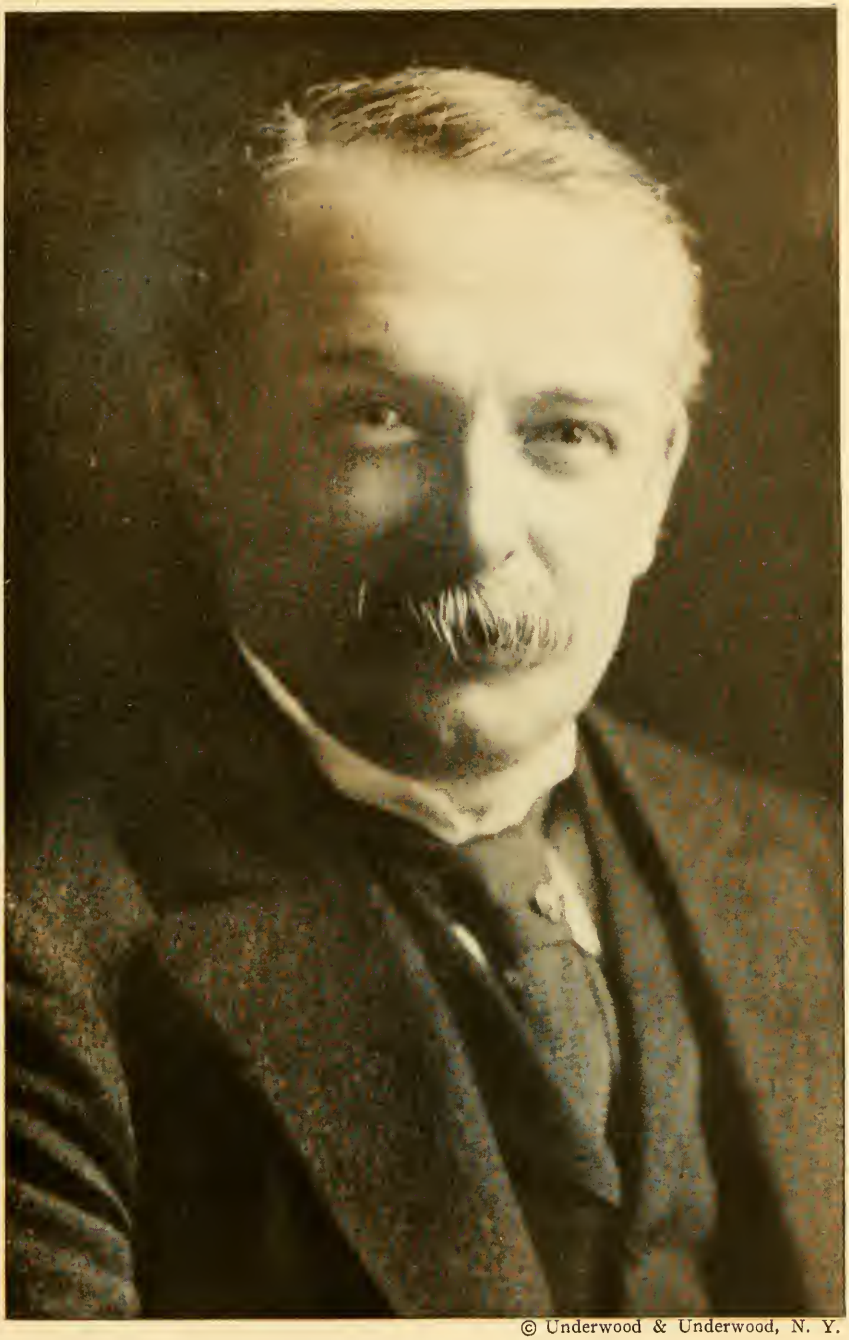
FRENCH PREMIER, GEORGES CLEMENCEAU.

In 1871 he was a French Deputy, who opposed the yielding of Alsace and Lorraine to Bismarck. In 1918 he said: "I make war, I make war. The victory is to the side which lasts to the last quarter of an hour." And Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France.



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BRITISH PREMIER, LLOYD GEORGE.

The international brains of the economic side of the war, the one man who was able to form a coalition cabinet in Great Britain, which fused every political party into a phalanx of united effort.

From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y. © Clinedinst, Washington, D. C.

GENERAL JOHN J. PERSHING.

Commander of the United States forces in France and Belgium. General Pershing was born in 1864, in Laclede, Missouri. Every inch of his six feet is fighting material. "Lafayette, we are here."—Pershing. The greatest four-word speech in history.

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MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH.

Generalissimo of Allied Armies. "Leave it to Foch," they said; and leave it to Foch they did. He outgeneraled the Germans, and the world knows the result.

Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

SIR DOUGLAS HAIG.

General Haig's family tree dates back many centuries, and he comes from the very flower of Scotch stock. The virtues of the "Haigs of Bamersyde" were extolled by the poets in the thirteenth century.

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KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM.

"Belgium, re-established in all its rights, will rule its destinies according to its aspirations and in full sovereignty." From his re-entry into Brussels address.

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GENERAL DIAZ, THE ITALIAN HERO.
The General who led Italy's Army to glorious victory.

in the process of mobilization along the river Dyle and covering the advance upon Brussels and Antwerp and there was no infantry to support the forts. Troops—the Third Division and a mixed Brigade, were rushed to Liege and the civic guard of the city joined the forces. This hastily mobilized force of probably 20,000 was set to defend the city.

Gangs were put to work digging trenches and throwing up breastworks, and houses and buildings in the line of fire were leveled. The resistance of the Belgians aroused the ire of the Germans and from thence on the doom of the country was sealed so far as the Hun army was concerned.

Germany had said, "Let us go through your land and we will compensate you for damages when the war has been won." But King Albert, with an army of less than 200,000, prepared to defend his country and in answer to Germany's proposal said to his people: "I have faith in our destinies. A nation which defends itself commands the respect of all. Such a nation cannot perish. God will be with us in a just cause. Long live independent Belgium!"

Germany's Plan for Entering Belgium.

The First German Army of von Kluck was concentrated at a point along the Rhine above Aix-la-Chapelle; the Second Army, in command of von Bülow, below the first; the third army, under the Duke of Wurtemburg, along the river Moselle; the Crown Prince's army was that on the frontier opposite Luxemburg; the Fifth Army, under the Crown Prince of Bavaria, outside of Metz, and the Sixth Army at a point some miles from Nancy, under General von Heeringen.

There was no mystery about the German plan. It was the famous mass-drive at the centre and flanking movement at both ends, in so far as this might be possible with regard to the lay of the land. At the northern end, a very heavy German force had been gathered, for it would be necessary for the First, Second and Third German Armies to enter the battle-ground by the comparatively narrow defile between the Holland frontier and the Ardennes and then sweep out fan-fashion to the sea. It was the intention of the German High Command to send the First Army by forced march and the occupation of the Belgian railways to Brussels and Antwerp. The Second Army, to which were attached the heavy siege howitzers, was directed against the two powerful fortresses of Namur and Maubeuge. The third Army was to force

the Moselle by Givet, not waiting for the reduction of Namur. This was like a great sickle sweeping the Belgians into the sea.

It will be noted that the Third Army had the shortest distance to travel. This was designed because it was to form a junction with the mass-drive or "shock" centre of the army. The Fourth Army, under the German Crown Prince, was designed to attack the French-Luxemburg frontier (for this reason the violation of Luxemburg territory was a necessary part of the German plan), centering near Sedan. The Fifth Army, under the Bavarian Crown Prince, was to strike north of Verdun towards Rheims. Thus the Third, Fourth and Fifth Armies were converging on Paris, with the whole driving force of the German Empire behind them.

The Teuton Project Disarranged.

The southern portion of the Fifth Army and the whole of the Sixth Army formed the southern flank. In this territory the Germans knew the enveloping movement to be impossible. In the first place, it was out of the question to overrun Switzerland as they planned to invade Belgium. That would take time, and delay meant disaster. In the second place, France had fortified the Verdun-Toul-Epinal-Belfort chain of fortresses with such strength that the Germans did not believe that the line could be forced without the greatly feared delay. The German Sixth Army, then, was a defensive army, designed to prevent a French invasion of the Rhine Valley through Alsace. This was a highly dangerous point, and von Heeringen was sent there as one of the keenest strategists in the German command.

To recapitulate. The First and Second Armies were to sweep Belgium; the Third, Fourth and Fifth Armies were to drive on Paris; the Sixth Army was to hold its ground and prevent a French attack in Alsace. That was the plan.

Little Liége disarranged the plan. Liége, the Marne, Ypres and the Piave are the four great names of the war. It will be well to consider Liége closely, for only those who have studied the war from the military point of view assign to it the importance that its defense warrants.

Liége was what was known as a "ring fortress," that is to say, the town itself was not fortified, but it was surrounded by a ring of six forts of the first order, Pontisse, Barchon and Fléron on the north and east; Loncin, Flemalles and Boncelles on the west and south. Between

these and at points of less strategic importance were six smaller forts, or fortins, Evegnée, Chaudfontaine, Embourg, Hollogne, Lantin and Liers.

These forts were moderately well armed, but the nine-inch guns, ordered from Krupps several years before, had never been received. It afterwards became known that the German government had ordered Krupps not to deliver the order. In the twelve forts there were four hundred guns, mainly six-inch and 4.7-inch guns, and eight-inch mortars

Liége Fortifications Not Invulnerable to Siege Howitzers.

Moreover, these forts had been built by Brialmont in what was the very latest fashion at the time he built them—but that was twenty years before the opening of the world war. Each of the six main forts was built as a triangle, commanding a strong natural position, and approached by a steep artificial mound. At the top of the earth slope was a deep ditch, the counterscarp of which was a masonry wall topped with wire entanglements. The entire earth slope, ditch and wall was exposed to heavy guns throwing shrapnel shell, as well as to machine-gun and rifle fire. Quick-firing guns, mounted in cupolas at each angle of the triangle, swept the sunken ditch with an enfilading fire. No troops could storm that ditch. On the main inner triangle was the infantry parapet, shaped something like a heart, pierced for rifle fire and with more machine-gun emplacements. In the hollow of that heart-shaped space, and sunk therein, rose a solid central mass of concrete, on and in which were the shelter and gun cupolas for the heavier guns and mortars. The cupolas rose from the floor of the hollow, outside the central mass. They were invisible to the foe until raised by their inner machinery, but once raised, the turreted guns could fire their six-inch shells in any direction. When Brialmont built the forts they were absolutely impregnable.

The impregnability of such fortifications as those of Liége, however, was only in relation to the guns and howitzers of the period of 1894. They were still impregnable to direct-fire guns in 1914. Events proved that they were not invulnerable to long-range howitzers. As these "siege guns," or, more correctly, siege howitzers, were the dominating factor of the early part of the war, it is necessary to explain their tremendous importance, and to show how they changed the entire character of modern warfare.

The difference between a gun and a howitzer lies in the fact that a gun depends largely for its destructiveness on its striking power or its velocity, while the destructiveness of a howitzer depends on the power of the exploding charge of its shell. The shell from a large gun travels with a muzzle velocity of over half a mile a second. It must have as flat a trajectory as possible to increase its striking power. A howitzer shell needs only just enough velocity to carry the high explosive to the point desired. It flies with a high trajectory, being lobbed up in the air to drop almost perpendicularly on the point desired. A howitzer generally looks as though it were shooting at the moon.

Now, Brialmont had built the ring of forts of Liége in such a way that every point which would give shelter to a howitzer of the power of his time could be swept by a six-inch gun, for, as has been shown, a gun has a far longer range than a howitzer. Moreover, the sunken forts of Liége, by reason of their hidden character, could laugh even at a naval gun. At the time of the building of these forts, the six-inch was the biggest howitzer.

The Invasion of Belgium Begun.

Knowing this—for Belgium was honeycombed with German spies—the German High Command had sent 8.4-inch howitzers with the First Army, or, to speak more exactly, with that part of the First Army, under General von Emmich, to which was entrusted the reduction of Liége. It was a mathematical problem, purely. The German High Command had reasoned that these large howitzers could be located at points behind small rises of ground, sheltered from the six-inch gunfire of the forts, and that they could reduce Liége. The famous siege howitzers, as has been said, were crawling on their way with the Second Army for the reduction of Namur and Maubeuge, where the Germans expected a fiercer resistance than Belgium could improvise at Liége on the surprise attack, on the first day of the war.

On the evening of August 3, 1914, though war had not yet been declared, the German forces crossed the Belgian frontier. At nine o'clock in the morning of August 4, the second advance line of von Emmich reached Visé, north of Liége and close to the Dutch frontier. The first shots of the war were exchanged with a Belgian guard. The Belgians then blew up the bridge across the Meuse at Visé and the Germans commenced to bombard the town. Early in the afternoon

they crossed on a pontoon bridge. The armed invasion of Belgium had begun. By evening, Liége was invested on three sides.

Shortly before five o'clock in the evening of that day, cavalry patrols appeared before the little fortin of Evegnée. The fort barked defiance. Within the hour, infantry, light and heavy artillery appeared and, before darkness fell, the bombardment of Forts Barchon, Evegnée and Fléron had begun. By eleven o'clock Chaudfontaine was engaged, and by midnight, Fort Embourg. By three o'clock in the morning Fort Boncelles began to speak, and just as dawn broke, Fort Pontisse, in the far north of the ring, opened fire with its larger guns. Within twelve hours of the time that the first German cavalry had been sighted, every fort on the eastern side of the Meuse was engaged.

The first infantry attack was against Fourt Embourg, one of the smaller forts. The supposedly unprepared Belgian infantry not only defended the fort with great gallantry, sweeping down the massed formation of the Germans by thousands, but counter-attacked with vigor. At eight o'clock the Germans were forced to withdraw. The first engagement of the war was won by Belgium.

Heavy Losses by the Germans Before Liége.

By noon, German troops had made nine attacks at one or other of the forts. They were beaten back every time. At least 15,000 men fell during the morning, without achieving any result. Brialmont's forts were too strong and the Belgians were too brave to fall under any mass attack, no matter how heavy and powerful.

The howitzers, however, told another story. Shortly before noon of that day, August 5, the hoisting machinery of Fort Fléron, one of the larger forts, was put out of commission by a howitzer shell. The two smaller forts on either side, Chaudfontaine and Evegnée, could not close the gap. The Belgian infantry were eager to try and hold the gap by rifle fire, but General Leman realized that this would be folly. On this day, the Belgians had 22,500 against 120,000 Germans, a numerical superiority of almost six to one. What was still more disastrous, the railway from Hervé into Liége, which had been guarded by Fort Fléron, fell into German hands.

With the guns of Fléron silenced, the German howitzers which had been bombarding that fort now turned to the two little fortins, Chaudfontaine and Evegnée. Following the German policy of con-

tinuous attack, fresh troops advanced constantly against the Belgian garrisons, which thus had no time for sleep and hardly any time for food. The howitzer shells dropped on the fortins and ripped away their stone, cement and earth protections as though these had been but cardboard. By the morning of August 6, the way into Liége was open from the east. General Leman, consulting with his officers at military headquarters, was almost captured. He escaped over a wall. General Leman promptly ordered the evacuation of the city by the infantry, and the following day, August 7, 1914, Burgomaster Kleyer and the Bishop of Liége negotiated for the surrender of the city.

Heroic Resistance of the Belgians.

The situation was excessively bad for the Germans. The High Command had given von Emmich forty-eight hours to take Liége. It had taken three days. But—as it turned out, a very large "but"—the western forts of Liége were not silenced. General Leman withdrew to these, announcing his intention to fight to the last gun. The importance of this decision may be grasped when it is said that Fort Pontisse controlled the Liége to Antwerp railway, Fort Loncin dominated the Liége to Brussels railway and Fort Boncelles swept the Liége to Paris railway. As long as those forts held out, the German army could not move. The city of Liége, indeed, had been taken by a three-day siege; the strategic fortress of Liége had not. Even the eastern conquest was not without its annoyances. When Chaudfontaine could no longer fight, the commandant sent half a dozen locomotives at full speed into the tunnel from opposite ends, so that they would collide in the middle and block the tunnel. The Verviers to Liége railway, therefore, was also out of business for the transport of German troops.

The people of Liége, fearing that the Germans would wreak reprisals on the city if the forts resisted, begged General Leman to surrender. The heroic commander, knowing that each day's delay at that time was worth a week, or maybe a month, later, answered curtly,

"The forts must hold!"

The German High Command had not anticipated this resistance. Fort Pontisse and Fort Flemalles to north and south of Liége respectively, commanded the crossings of the Meuse. There was no satisfactory artillery position for the 8.4 howitzers. The reduction of the

forts was attempted by infantry attack. At Pontisse, ten pontoon bridges were built across the Meuse by the Germans, with desperate courage, but, every time, the six-inch guns of the fort blew the bridges to atoms and the troops which had crossed were cut off and killed to a man. At Flemalles, the troops crossed, but the heavy artillery could not get over. Fort Boncelles, unprotected by the river, became "the stoke-hold of hell," as the Commandant was heard graphically to describe it.

Without sleep, with little food, the Belgians fought on. The 8th, the 9th and the 10th still saw 120,000 Germans stopped by a Belgian army, now raised by reinforcements to 36,000 men. On the 10th, General Leman had both legs crushed by falling masonry. He refused to go to a hospital, but was carried to his motor-car. He slept in it. He fought his forts from it.

Von Emmich grew savage and desperate. He must send for help. The great siege guns, crawling south to Namur, had to be diverted and brought north to reduce those indomitable little forts. It took those wide-mouthed monsters three long days to crawl up to Liége.

The Germans Steadily Advance.

Such guns had never been seen before. They were Germany's great war secret. Their weight was seventy-one tons. Each gun was transported in four pieces, each part being dragged by three traction engines on caterpillar wheels, a fourth huge leader engine going ahead to test the road and to give an added pull to the three powerful tractors when going up hills. The calibre of the gun was 42-centimeter (16.4-inch). The explosive force of one shell from these guns could destroy four city blocks.

When these arrived, General Leman knew the end had come. He ordered the infantry to retire on the Dyle. With less than 100 men the hero awaited the final bombardment of Fort Loncin. Three shells were sufficient to destroy it. The great steel cupolas were uprooted like weeds, pieces of concrete larger than a room were sent flying like pebbles. General Leman was pinned under the wreckage, grievously wounded, but not fatally.

It had taken Germany ten days to open the railways to the west. The northern wing of the fan, the right flank of the German armies, instead of sweeping out ahead of the mass-attack, was a week behind.

Germany's whole initial manœuvre was changed by the seven days' delay created by the three small forts.

With the fall of the forts, the long-delayed tidal wave of graycoats swept over Belgium. The cavalry tried to force the Dyle at Haelen, at Tirlemont and at Eghezee, but were beaten off. The Belgians fought like heroes. At last, on August 14, the cavalry, which were only acting as a screen, were withdrawn, and the four German army corps which had been stopped at Liége began to thunder forward. Diest, St. Trond and Waremme fell, but the Belgians held fast again at Aërschot. Each day, yes, every hour, the Belgians expected to see French troops coming up from the south or British troops landing at Ostend. Neither appeared. The Belgians feared that they were being sacrificed.

The Belgian main army retreated on Antwerp, and the right wing, becoming a rearguard, covered its retreat at Louvain. Here a bitter battle occurred, lasting two days. Louvain fell to the Germans, but the Belgians retreated in good order, having safely covered their main army. On the 23rd a counter-offensive drove the Germans out of Malines. Still, each day, the Belgians expected the landing of British troops. None came. Notwithstanding, for three weeks the Belgians held back the German divisions striking northwards. That they were able to do so was because von Kluck's army was pivoting for a southern blow, realizing that the time could not be afforded for the outward sweep to the sea.

British and French Forces Combine.

Why had not the British arrived at Ostend? The real answer was simple. They had landed at Boulogne, the first transports arriving August 9. Rightly realizing that Germany's goal would be Paris and that Brussels was only a side-issue, the British military leaders decided to join with the French Army and take up such position as the French leaders should deem best.

General Joffre, the reorganizer of the French Army, was naturally the man for the supreme command. He showed his mettle as a strategist, rather than a tactician, by taking up what seemed to be a strong position in a right-angled position, with the corner of the angle at Namur. This was typical French strategy, being the operative corner of a strategic square, a manner of handling armies which will be dealt with in detail in the next chapter, when showing the system in operation.

Namur was chosen as the corner for two reasons, one that it was

French Official Photograph. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

Showing the actual drafting by the Allied Plenipotentiaries of the armistice terms which ended the great world war. Left side of table from left to right: second man, General di Robilant; Italian Foreign Minister Sonnino; Italian Premier Orlando; Colonel Edward H. House; General Tasker H. Bliss; next man unknown; Greek Premier Venizelos, and Serbian Minister Vesnitch. Right side of table from left to right: Admiral Wemyss (with back turned); General Sir Henry Wilson; Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig; General Sackville West; Andrew Bonar Law; British Premier Lloyd George; French Premier Georges Clemenceau, and French Foreign Minister, Stephen Pichon.

Drawn by Ernest Prater. © Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

FIGHTING IN PALESTINE EAST OF THE JORDAN.

Infantry were in the act of occupying an important hill when they were met with a strong counter-attack. The timely arrival of machine guns and supports restored the situation.

Canadian Official Photograph. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

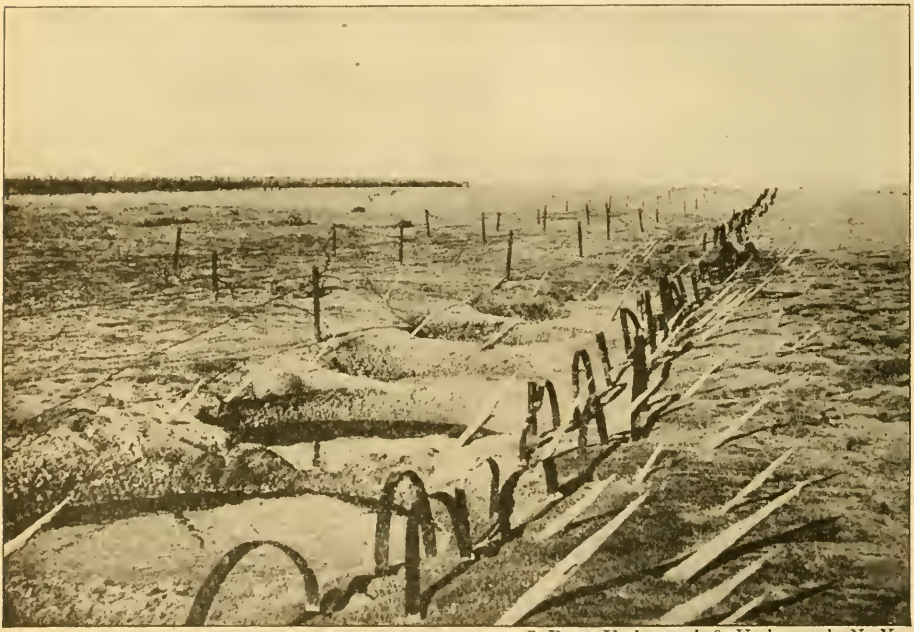
OFFICE OF A FIELD CASHIER.

This spot was formerly one of the pillbox strongholds of the famous switch in the Hindenburg line. It was afterwards run by the Canadians.

British Official Photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

RED CROSS MEN CARRYING WOUNDED IN FULL VIEW OF ENEMY.

The British Red Cross stretcher bearers were only 600 yards from the enemy at the battle of Menin Road. Note the devastated condition of the country.



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BARBAROUS METHODS PRACTICED BY THE TURKS.

Showing how the Turkish forces in Palestine pursued their atrocious warfare. Sharpened stakes set at angles, steel hoops, ditches, etc., to injure horse and man.

British Official Photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

BRITISH TANKS ADVANCING ACROSS THE HINDENBURG LINE.

This battery of tanks shows the new superstructure on their fronts, which is used to carpet the slippery mud which the caterpillar wheels do not grip.

British Official Photo.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

A RELIGIOUS MEETING ON THE FIELD.

American, British, French, Belgian and Portuguese troops are represented in this gathering of defenders of Liberty listening to a sermon on the western front.

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AFRICAN TROOPS IN FRANCE. THEY FOUGHT FOR THE ALLIES.

A war dance, relieving the monotony and for the benefit of British and French troops. These colored soldiers gave a good account of themselves.

French Official Photograph.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

ENGLISH BOMBING PLANE ON THE AISNE FRONT.

Preparing the departure for a bombing expedition. The bombs and their holders can be seen in the foreground.

From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y. © Committee on Public Information.

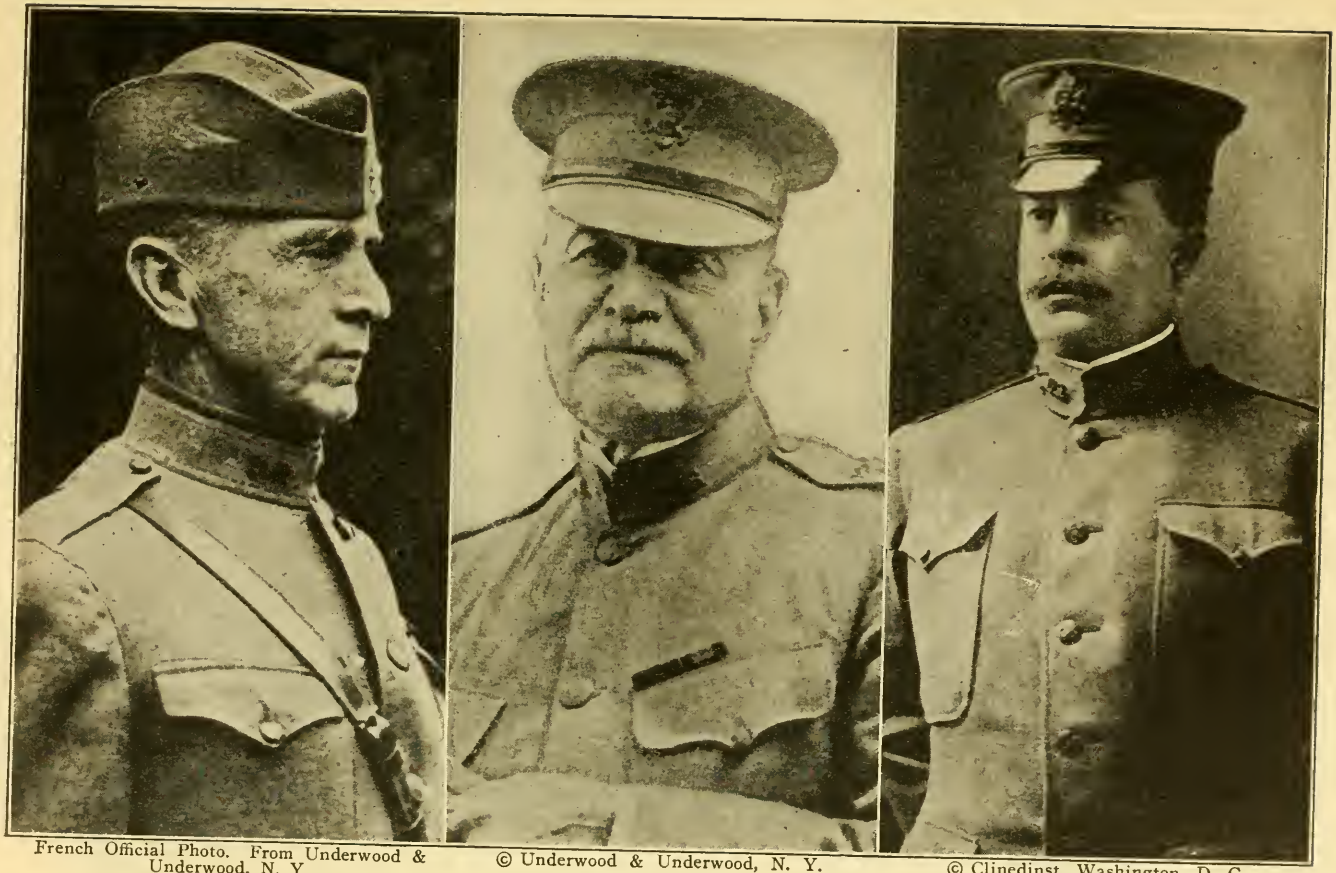
AN ATTACK BY AMERICANS.

Company H and Company K of the 336th Infantry, 82nd Division, are advancing on enemy positions in France and driving them out while the 307th Engineers of the 82nd Division are clearing the way by blowing up wire entanglements.

British Official Photo.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE HOLY LAND AND THE WAR.
Christmas Day at Bethlehem. Latin procession to the Church of Nativity.



French Official Photo. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL BULLARD.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL LIGGETT.

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From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL DICKMAN.

American Army Commanders who out-generaled the Germans. They were well supported by the fearless and determined fighters, the U. S. A. troops.

© Underwood & Underwood and Western Newspaper Union.

GENERAL HORNE. GENERAL BIRDWOOD.

GENERAL BYNG.

GENERAL PLUMER. GENERAL RAWLINSON.

Noted British Army Generals. They kept hammering the West Front, heroically and tenaciously, until the Hindenburg and all other enemy lines were crushed.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL PETAIN. GENERAL MANGIN. GENERAL D'ESPEREY.

Three French Generals who fought their way to fame. In many a battle they saved the day, and through their heroic deeds France was saved from the Hun.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL ALLENBY.

One of the notable events in the history of the war was the surrender of Jerusalem to the British Army under the command of General Allenby.

Photo Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL TOWNSHEND.

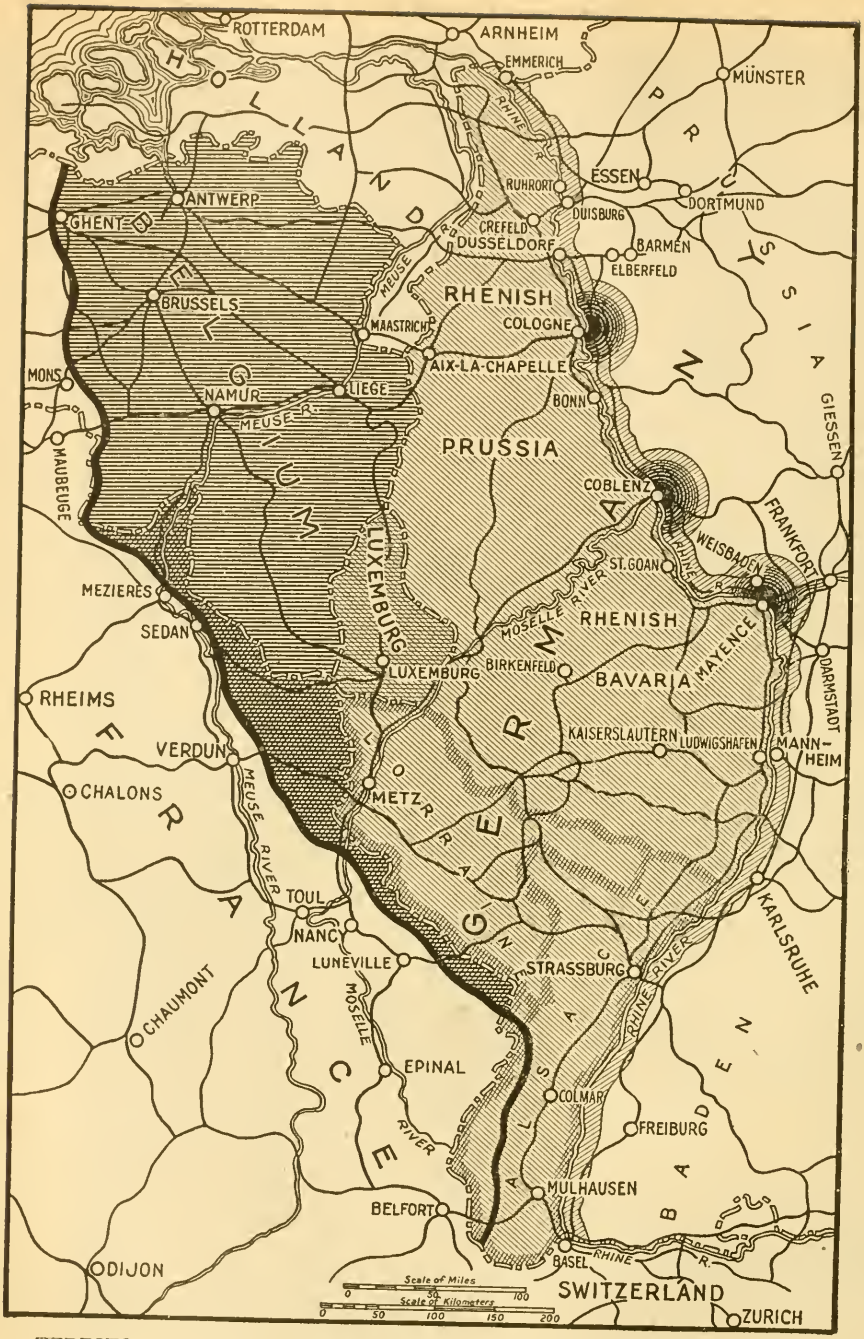
The British officer who was taken prisoner at Kut-el-Amara, and who afterwards became the peace negotiator for Great Britain when Turkey signed the Armistice.

© E. F. Corcoran, Phila.

SIGNING OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE BY MID-EUROPEAN NATIONS.

Professor H. A. Miller, Director; Thos. Naroshevitshius (Lithuanians); Christos Vassilkaki (Unredeemed Greeks); Christo Dako (Albanians); Charles Tomazolli (Italian Irredentists); Nicholas Ceglinsky (Ukranian); Dr. Hinko Hinkovich (Jugoslavs); T. M. Helinski (Poles); Dr. T. G. Masaryk (Prime Minister of Cezhoslovakia); G. Pasdermadjian (Armenians); Capt. Vasile Soica (Roumanians); Gregory Zsatkovich (Uhro-Rusins); Ittamar Ban-Avi (Zionists).

Signed Independence Hall, Phila., Oct. 26, 1918.



TERRITORY OCCUPIED BY ALLIES ACCORDING TO THE ARMISTICE.

Showing neutral strip east of the Rhine and the portions of France, Belgium, Luxemburg and Germany, evacuated by the German army and occupied by the Allies.

directly in the path of the advancing hosts, the other that, as a fortified place and well situated at the junction of the Rivers Sambre and Meuse, it had strong natural advantages. General Leman had held back the Germans for nine days with two forts; it was therefore possible that Namur, with the French army backing it, could hold out even longer. This reasoning was unsound. Fort Loncin had only held out for an hour or so, after the 16.4-inch howitzers had reached there. Namur had four forts and five fortins of the Liége type, constructed by the same engineer, defended by the same weight of guns.

The next question was the proportion of numbers. The French-British forces on the right angle cornering on Namur were approximately 300,000 men. Joffre had reason to anticipate the attack of a German army of 400,000 men, a serious enough disproportion in itself, but discounted by the fact that this army would be striking against a right angle and therefore unable to use the weight of a massed straight line. As a matter of fact, under von Kluck, von Bülow and von Wurtemburg combined, there were certainly 700,000 men and possibly 800,000. Even had Liége justified confidence in fortification, this overwhelming superiority in numbers was more than a menace, it was a prophecy of disaster.

Reduction of the Forts of Namur.

The Germans, however, had learned a lesson at Liége. They were not going to waste time and men by infantry attack on the forts of Namur. Two of the 42-centimeter (16.4-inch) siege guns, such as the two which had finally reduced the Liége forts, were seen by Allied scouts rolling over the Belgian plains a day or two before the attack on Namur. They were probably used. But, in any case, the Germans had thirty-two 28-centimeter guns, large enough to fire from beyond the reach of the fortress guns. Namur was doomed before the first shot was fired.

At sundown of August 20, the Germans were in position, and the Second Army trained its heavy artillery on the forts. The Belgian guns were outranged. It was merely wasting ammunition to answer. One long-continued hail of high-explosive shell fell on the forts. Stone was blown to powder, wooden beams to splinters, while the vacuum produced by the explosion of a shell did not kill or wound, but practically fused flesh, bone and blood into pulp. Even under these conditions the forts of Namur held out until August 23, though, as will be

seen, the defense of the last two days meant nothing to the bulk of the German Army. Namur was settled in a few hours. Already, on the morning of the 21st, it was evident to the Germans that it could not stop their advance. The first clash between the Germans and the Allies was at hand, the fortified armor covering their operative corner having been incinerated in a tornado of fire.

The battle was to join along Joffre's right angle, then, back of Namur, Charleroi being the actual corner. Lined up from the west was the British Expeditionary Force, a marvelous organization of fighting men, not civilian troops, like the French and German armies, but "regulars." There were but 70,000 of these, and they took up the line from Condé through Mons to Binche. There, the Fifth French Army, with 120,000 men, under General Lanrezac, took up the line, holding the Charleroi corner and extending southeastward to Dinant. General Langle de Cary, with the Fourth French Army, also of 120,000 men, continued the southern line until he conjoined with the Third, under General Ruffey, which did not enter into this particular campaign.

Numerical Superiority of the German Army.

Opposite the British Expeditionary Force of 70,000 men was von Kluck's First German Army with 250,000 men. Their disposition is of importance. Two army corps, or 100,000 men (a German Army Corps, on a war footing, carries a reserve which makes it larger than a French or English Army Corps), were to the west of the westernmost part of the British line; two corps, or 100,000 men, were facing the 70,000 British; and the fifth corps of 50,000 men was facing the weak junction point between the French and British Commands. Von Bülow, with the Second German Army, also had five army corps, or 250,000 men, against Lanrezac's 120,000; the Duke of Wurtemburg, with the Third German Army, had the same proportion. Moreover, though this was not known until long after, two cavalry divisions, under General von Hausen, had come through the Ardennes and were ready to pierce through and aid the German drive at the Charleroi corner.

The disproportion in numbers, however, was not fundamentally as great as it was tactically. The Germans were throwing most of their force forward. The French were holding theirs back. Figures were never given out for this period, but the conditions of fighting show that on August 20 the Allies had about 1,100,000 men in the field

(inclusive of Russia) and the Germans, 1,400,000. Germany's reserve military man-power, however, was far greater than that of the Allies, while the Allies' population-power, out of which trained man-power might slowly be brought, was greater than that of the Central Powers.

A few cavalry skirmishes on Friday, August 21, marked the German realization that Namur was no obstacle. In the afternoon artillery fire began at Jemappes. Toward evening German artillery took up position against Charleroi and Thuin. A few shots were fired, to get the ranges. The stage was set for the Battle of Charleroi.

The following morning, early, von Bülow attacked Charleroi in full strength. While it cannot be said that the French were unprepared, the reports from Namur, which showed that some of the forts were still holding, gave them little notice of the suddenness of the blow. Nor was the air scout work of the Allies yet sufficiently advanced to inform General Lanrezac of the forces opposing him. The Germans fought from six o'clock in the morning until nearly noon before they forced the bridge at Chatelet. Von Kluck swung sideways, between the British and French, and carried the bridge at Thuin, at two o'clock in the afternoon.

Germans Win at Charleroi.

The Fifth French Army, holding the point of the angle, was thus flanked on both sides. A hasty retreat was the only resort. Into the retreat, just as it began, plunged the mysterious von Hausen army, with two strong cavalry divisions. Lanrezac was on the point of annihilation. He fled, leaving behind him his wounded and many of his guns. It was a matter of minutes. Half an hour's delay would have caused the Fifth French Army to be surrounded and cut down. Saturday evening was a wild flight, and midnight saw Charleroi in flames, although Turco and Zouave troops had charged back into the city several times and driven the Germans out in hand-to-hand fighting. The Germans failed before cold steel, but their artillery was irresistible.

In order to shorten the line, the Fourth French Army promptly fell back on Philippeville, thus closing the gap almost created by von Hausen's impetuous push. Sunday, August 23, saw the French armies retreating rapidly, but in better order. The operative corner still held. None the less, the Namur-Charleroi battle was a decided victory for Germany.

It has been stated that von Kluck had swung eastward, between the British and French lines, on Saturday afternoon, and had taken

the bridge across the Sambre at Thuin. This not only flanked the French under Lanrezac, but it also flanked the British right. On the same day, moreover, von Kluck detached his cavalry and the westernmost of his army corps. The cavalry he sent outward in a wide sweep beyond Tournai, the corps he put in motor transports and sent them on a forced advance west of Condé. Of both these movements, the British commander, Sir John French, was supremely ignorant.

The cutting off of the British from the French, at Thuin, prevented direct communication between Lanrezac and Sir John French. The rout, which began at six o'clock in the evening, was of so complete a character that telegraph instruments were never set up. Two dispatch riders sent by Lanrezac to the British failed to arrive, being either shot or captured. German spies behind the lines cut Lanrezac's wires to Headquarters.

Retreat of the British From the Mons to the Marne.

On Sunday morning, August 23, therefore, the British, holding the exposed Condé-Mons-Binche position, were uninformed as to the disaster at Charleroi. They did not know that their right flank was not only unprotected, but actually flanked by one of von Kluck's army corps. Von Kluck, with admirable restraint, held back from attacking. The church bells rang. The morning services proceeded without interruption.

It was nearly one o'clock before British cavalry patrols hastened back with the news of a German advance through the woods. A few minutes before half-past one, the battle of Mons began. It developed rapidly. By two o'clock, the British lines were being severely shelled, and Sir John French, anticipating the fire of 300 guns, found more than 600 marshaled against him. At half-past three the German infantry attacked in mass formation. Their rifle fire was poor. The loss of life was heavy. The Germans fell back, and artillery duels resumed sway.

In view of later knowledge it becomes possible to understand why von Kluck did not rush the British position on that Sunday. He had advantage enough in men and guns to have done so. As a matter of fact, he did not try to take the Mons position. He was employing the whole of two army corps and the halves of two others to keep the British engaged, while the rest of his force was engaged in flanking the British on both sides. It was good tactics.

Then, at five o'clock in the evening, what Sir John French called "a most unexpected message from General Joffre by telegraph" told of the Charleroi disaster and revealed to the British commander that he was outnumbered on the fighting line by three or four to one and in imminent danger of being flanked on both sides.

Almost simultaneously came a second German attack. It was then that occurred one of the most curious of the psychic experiences of the war. German prisoners and British soldiers agreed that there suddenly appeared, in the evening light, long lines of ghostly English archers, such as those of the wars of six centuries before, which advanced across the Mons canal, shooting cloth-yard arrows at the Germans. The attack suddenly lost its fury and died down.

Dusk of that Sunday found the British Expeditionary Force in a desperate position. That evening the men of the Irish Rifles, the Middlesex Regiment, the Gordon Highlanders and other famous British regiments, held the advanced lines and even made brisk counter-offensives, to deceive the Germans, in their turn, to cause them to believe that the British were still unaware of the disaster at Charleroi. Such was the British situation, when in the cold gray of before-dawn on Monday, August 24, Sir John French ordered the great fighting retreat from the Mons to the Marne.

CHAPTER III.

THE MARNE—DECISIVE BATTLE OF THE WAR.

The Greatest Fighting Retreat in History—Rival Strategies, German Mass-Drive and French Lozenge—British Expeditionary Army Cut to Pieces—The Ragged Legion, Mobilized in Taxi-Cabs, That Saved Paris—Joffre's Tactics—How Foch Won the Victory in Half-an-Hour.

THE unhappy delay of the dispatch recounting the fall of Charleroi, not received until 5 P. M. of that most important Sunday, August 23, 1914, left the British Expeditionary Force in an advanced position, twenty-four hours to the rear of the retreating French armies. This spelt one terrible word—Sacrifice. If the Germans were to be prevented from breaking through, if all Joffre's strategy was to be saved from hideous ruin, then the British Army must retreat slowly, fighting rearguard actions all the way. It must allow itself to be cut to pieces, bit by bit. The agony must be drawn out. Each day, each hour, was priceless.

The famous "fighting retreat from Mons to the Marne" was a gigantic strategic plan, requiring the boldness of a big mind for its decision and the loyalty and courage of heroes for its carrying out. It meant the deliberate abandonment of a large section of Northern France and the establishment of a powerful line of defence pivoting on Verdun, the southern arm reaching to Belfort, the western arm to Paris. This decision of Joffre's was based upon the discovery that the fortifications of Namur could not support the Great Siege Guns. In that case, Joffre argued, the next line of defence along the lines of La Fere-Laon-Rheims was untenable.

Sir John French had 80,000 men on the morning of the battle of Mons, including cavalry. Against him were 150,000 men under von Kluck, engaged in a frontal attack; 50,000 men working forward to his left flank; and 20,000 cavalry, which had already flanked him on that fatal Saturday and Sunday, coming up on his left rear. In addition to these odds 100,000 men under von Bülow had driven through the Charleroi-Namur breach of the angle, as shown in the last chapter, and

were massed on his right. Von Hausen's cavalry, acting as a harassing force to the flying Fifth French Army, was on his right rear.

The English force of 80,000 men was facing a German army of 300,000. Yet, despite this disproportion of numbers, the English dare not fall back on French support, for such action would smash all Joffre's strategy. The strategy saved France but cost England the flower of her army. To understand this necessity, the main principle of French strategy must be made clear.

The principle of French strategy is the strategic square, or diamond, acting on the basis of a spring bent back to the utmost, which, when it is released, rebounds forward with tremendous force. Under this plan, the whole group of armies is divided into four parts, placed like the bases on a baseball diamond. One point, like second base, is pointed toward the enemy and is called the "operative corner," two armies, like the first and third bases, respectively, are the "manoeuvring masses," the last, corresponding to home base, is the "army of reserve." It is a form of strategy based on achieving big results with the smallest possible number of men.

German and Allied Strategy Compared.

The principle of German strategy is that of hurling the largest possible force of men and metal on a given point in an opposing line, breaking the line, and as the ends of the line close in to try and piece it together again, flanking the converging ends, rolling the army in on itself and, in military language, "annihilating it." Given, as in the case of the beginning of the world war, a larger force and a heavier weight of metal on the German than on the Allied side, the German strategy is sure of success, provided the opposing forces are also in formation of line.

Note, however, how Joffre's strategy vitiates this plan. A big army must spread out over a long line. There is a definite limit to the amount of traffic a road or a bridge can carry in a given time. When, therefore, the massed line strikes an opposing point, it is not necessarily heavier at that point than the defending force. Moreover, it is in the discretion of the defending general to swing his two armies of manoeuvre either to right or left, together, and strike the opposing force at an unexpected point. Therefore, the opposing force dare not weaken its whole line to help the middle which is in contact.

Since the point of the diamond is only an advance point, it can retreat. Indeed, it is expected to do so. That is what it is there to do. But a retreat is not a flight. On the contrary, every mile taken to the rear shortens the transport of supply, and brings the point of the diamond back on the manoeuvring masses and the reserve army. It is like pulling an arrow back to its head. If the string then be released the arrow springs forward with tremendous energy.

That was exactly this position of the Retreat to the Marne. The British Army was the point, at second base; Verdun was first base, Condé was third base, and Paris was home base. The British Army, as the operative point, therefore, dared not let the enemy flank it, for then von Bülow would break inside the square. It must retreat in the shape of an inverted V, fighting all the while at the apex and on both flanks, until it made connections with the masses of manoeuvre, who were also retreating. Being twenty-four hours behind in starting the retreat, there was a gap. That gap was the danger.

The "Fighting Retreat" to the Marne.

At 4 o'clock in the morning, the retreat began. It was covered by a gallant attack on Binche, by a couple of regiments, designed to convince the Germans that the British were advancing. Few men returned alive from that charge. In the half-light the Germans attacked furiously, and Sir John French, fearing a charge along the whole line ordered the First Division forward as though to retake Binche. It was heavily punished, but the Second Corps withdrew on the Quaroube-Dour-Frameries line, the right, however, suffering heavy losses.

The British cavalry were then brought into play, and General Allenby, who later was to become famous in the Palestine campaign, charged on the German flank. The 9th Lancers and 18th Hussars ran into a wire entanglement and were cut to pieces. The arrival of the 19th Infantry Brigade somewhat strengthened the left, at a crucial moment, but the continued retirement of the French meant that the British must go, also. They were a day behind, and therefore exposed to the full fury of the foe.

The night of August 24-25 found the British on the Bavai-Maubeuge line, and a slight slackening on the right showed that the German hoped to entice the British commander to make a stand there. Maubeuge was a fortress of the first rank, but, as Sir John French put the matter: "The

determined attempts of the enemy to get round my left flank assured me that it was his intention to hem me against that place and surround me. I felt that not a moment must be lost in retiring to another position. . . . The operation, however, was full of danger and difficulty, not only owing to the very superior force in my front, but also owing to the exhaustion of my troops."

Indeed, by the morning of August 25, matters were grave for the British. Whereas, on Sunday morning, Sir John French had faced von Kluck's army of 250,000 men, on Sunday afternoon this had been raised to 300,000 by the addition of von Hausen's cavalry and during Monday at least one army corps from von Bulow was attacking or preparing to attack, near Maubeuge. On the other hand, counting all branches, the British had raised their numbers to 82,500 men, less the casualties of Sunday and Monday, certainly not less than 7,500 men. The odds at this point, then, were 300,000 to 75,000.

The British Army Greatly Exhausted.

It has already been shown that the British Army was twenty hours in arrear of the retreat schedule, owing to the failure to communicate the fall of Charleroi, but it must also be mentioned that Joffre's strategic plan of falling back to the Rhine inevitably forced on the British the longest distance to travel, for the line was pivoting on Verdun. Two things, only, were in the British favor. The first was that the Germans, trying to envelop, were all the time on the outside of the arc and thus had even further to go. Sometimes this makes a great difference, for modern armies can only travel on good roads. The other was that the railroads and the excellent highways of France were in Sir John French's hands, ready for use, if he could but cover his retreat. The Allied lines were shortening and strengthening with every mile south, the German lines were lengthening and weakening with every mile of advance. The strategy of the square was in operation; the spring was being bent back.

Tuesday, August 25, was a critical day. Sir John French gave the army only four hours' sleep, and a detachment sent back to intrench the Le Cateau line did not have any sleep at all. Through the day the army retired steadily, fighting rearguard actions all the while. General Allenby's cavalry, though men and horses were dropping with fatigue, fought all the long day through.

Late in the evening, amid all the confusion of trying to make camp, the First Division of the First Army Corps, under General Haig, was suddenly pounced upon by an advance guard of von Kluck's army, at Maroilles. Out of the night came sudden relief. A few companies of the Fifth French Army appeared, as though from nowhere, and helped the British. These French troops were off their road, for the main army was being pursued hot-foot by von Bulow.

At ten o'clock Haig reached Landrecies, his men at their last gasp. Yet, before he made camp, Haig took the precaution of putting up barbed wire defenses and the machine guns were placed to command the entry to the little town. The men lay down to sleep. They had not slept ten minutes when a full division of the German 9th Army Corps was at them. Staggering like drunken men from weariness, the Guards Brigade drove back the foe with heavy loss. They lay down on the ground to sleep again, but, three hours later, Haig inexorably roused them to the rearward march again. It took seasoned troops to endure such terrible handling.

The Glorious Stand of Le Cateau.

That same evening, the Second Army Corps, under General Smith-Dorrien, found itself in equally desperate straits. It reached Le Cateau by a more westerly route, some battalions having marched thirty miles. Many of the men dropped to sleep without waiting for food. To wake them was almost an impossibility. Sir John French sent word to General Sordet's Cavalry Corps, asking for support. He received reply that the horses were too exhausted to move. So, with constant attacks and skirmishes, passed the night of August 25-26.

Stiff, haggard, hungry and nerve-racked the British Army stood to arms before daybreak of August 26, dogged will-power forcing a galvanic obedience to commands which had become impossible to fatigue-dulled consciousness. At the extreme left, a single division was compelled to resist a terrific attack from at least three Army Corps. So fierce and heavy was this drive that Smith-Dorrien reported it to be more dangerous to retreat than to stand. Words could not say more. Sir John French answered that if he must fight, he must, but to break off the action at the very first moment possible. He had not so much as a platoon to spare to send him. Fortunately, a loose body of French Territorials under General d'Amade was forming to the west and these kept Smith-Dorrien from being flanked. Somehow, anyhow—they

never knew how themselves—one and a half British corps, at the breaking point of exhaustion, fought five German corps, including some crack German troops, fresh for the fray. And, when the whole Prussian Guards Cavalry Division charged one infantry brigade of 1200 men, it was thrown back "with heavy loss and in absolute disorder." If this seem too extraordinary for belief, it is to be remembered that these were the British "regulars," not a militia army, and war has always shown the marvelous power of veterans in staving off attacks, even of the most overpowering character.

Against such enormous odds, no offset of gallantry and training could long endure, however, and at 3.30 in the afternoon, to escape annihilation, retirement was attempted. "The movement," says Sir John French, "was covered with the most devoted intrepidity and determination by the artillery, which had itself suffered heavily. . . . Fortunately, the enemy had himself suffered too heavily to engage in an energetic pursuit." This was termed, even in the cold dispatches of Sir John French, "the glorious stand" of Le Cateau, and though it cost the British 5,000 men at least, enemy casualties were far heavier.

On this same day, the French forces, which had been forming to the west, took rapid shape, and by the evening of September 26, General Manoury's army, which was to do so much in saving Paris, protected the British flank. When Smith-Dorrien dropped south, he was not alone, the French were beside him. Von Kluck's enveloping movement, which had threatened the whole position for four continuous days and nights, was checked.

Large Depletion of the British Expeditionary Force.

The First Army Corps, under Sir Douglas Haig, however, was by no means out of danger. It had retreated on Guise, and, dangerous though the policy might be, a halt of several hours was made for food and rest. The army suffered from this delay next day, when the Second Munster Fusilliers were cut off and either killed or captured to a man. On the 28th, very heavy cavalry detachments of the enemy harassed the British, but the rear-guard actions were annoying rather than dangerous. On the 29th the First Corps halted near St. Quentin. (Lest the reader be confused by the names of the British generals, it may be said that there was but one British Army, commanded by Sir

John French, comprising the First and Second Army Corps, commanded respectively by Generals Haig and Smith-Dorrien.)

General Joffre was at last in a position to come to the British relief. General Manoury, with the Sixth French Army, moved up to cover the British left; the Fifth French Army, under Lanrezac, which had borne the brunt of the Charleroi fight, moved west to cover the British right. The British Army, what was left of it, retired without opposition to a point north of the Aisne between Compiegne and Soissons. Official figures have not been given out, indeed, they have been scrupulously withheld, yet there is reason to suppose that not more than 30,000 reached that line. Many detachments which were lost, or strayed, turned up later, but it is sure that over one-third of the British Expeditionary Force was on the casualty list after the heroic "four days' battle" which marked the first stage of the Retreat from Mons to the Marne.

Military Wisdom of the Retreat to the Marne.

It will be clear to the reader that two French armies had advanced to cover the British. They would therefore have to sustain the shock of stopping the pursuing German hosts. It came at once. In the west, General Manoury, knowing that his army was as yet loosely thrown together, and realizing the danger of being outflanked, only felt the German pressure and retreated slowly towards Paris, keeping von Kluck on the move.

In the centre of the line, however, these tactics were impossible. Between Guise and St. Quentin, the Fifth Army (which at this point had its command transferred from General Lanrezac to General d'Espérey) not only stood ready for the contact with the oncoming invaders, but counter-attacked furiously, driving back the German Guard and the Guard Reserve Corps. The next day, the Germans were again checked at Rethel.

This is not a history of military tactics, but of the war as a whole, so it will be better not to confuse the main issue by further tactical details of the retreat to the Marne. But, that the superlative strategy of Joffre in this campaign may be made clear, it is necessary to show why it was military wisdom to retreat so far. Perris words the matter neatly when he says: "Joffre was putting von Kluck on the horns of a dilemma of which it would be difficult to say which would be the more

fatal: to assault Paris with all the Allied armies intact; or to refuse and attack those armies on ground that they had chosen."

Just for a moment, let the first horn of the dilemma be considered. Paris could not be taken by direct assault; that was out of the question. It would have to be invested all around. Now the ring of the outer forts of Paris has a circumference of nearly a hundred miles. It would take half a million men to invest Paris with a sufficiently strong wall of steel. Germany could not spare so many men, at least not with the Allied armies intact. Her line of communications would be broken at once, and that would be the end of it.

The Allied armies, therefore, must be beaten first. But, to do so, the Germans had to defeat them on their own chosen ground, with reinforcements growing daily, with excellent railroad supply bases, with an intimate knowledge of the ground, and with a heavy mass of untired reserves behind. On the German side, the men were wearied, had lost heavily, and their line of communication was long.

Positions of the Opposing Forces.

No matter which policy the German High Command adopted, Paris was at a dangerous point. She would either be the central point of attack, in which case the masses of manœuvre would swing behind, or she would be the pivot of a central attack somewhere between herself and Rheims. On August 1, the government commenced to evacuate Paris; on September 2, the diplomats and ministers left; on September 3, the proclamation was made that the seat of the French government had been established in Bordeaux.

The failure of the Germans to force Nancy, an engagement known as Le Grand Cournonne of Nancy, and which ended on September 4, was a determining factor in deciding the Germans to attack towards the western end of the line. General Sarrail, with the Third French Army, had succeeded in holding the pivotal point of Verdun, ever since the first day of the war—thanks as much to the amazingly bad generalship of the German Crown Prince as to French gallantry—and the German decision to strike between Paris and Rheims was based upon the mistaken assumption that Joffre's reserves were behind Verdun, at the eastern end of the line. On that same day, September 4, French aviators reported that von Kluck was wheeling to the southeastward. Evidently, then, the main attack was not to be made on Paris.

Just for clearness, it is well to review the opposed forces, naming them from the west, as before. First came the First German Army, under von Kluck, facing Paris; next came the Second German Army, under von Bülow; then came von Hausen's interposing force, now added to by two Saxon corps and the Prussian Guard; next came the Third German Army, under the Duke of Wurtemberg; next came the Crown Prince's Army. Facing these were, first, the now firmly organized Sixth French Army, under General Manoury, which had been facing von Kluck in the retreat. It lay northeast of Paris. Next came the forces under General Gallieni, which formed Paris' defending army, including the famous Ragged Legion of Paris. Next, to the rear, in reserve, was the British Expeditionary Force, now raised in force to nearly 100,000 men by continual reënforcements from England. Next came the Fifth French Army, formerly under General Lanrezac, but now under General d'Espérey, facing von Bülow. Next came Joffre's surprise, the spiral of the spring, the army of reserve, a powerful, fresh, well-equipped army under France's greatest tactician, General Foch; it faced von Hausen. Next came the Fourth French Army, still under General Langle de Cary; it faced the Duke of Wurtemburg. General Sarrail, with the Third French Army at Verdun, faced the Crown Prince of Germany, as he had done from the beginning.

The Battle of the Marne Begins.

The reader will do well to observe that the weight of numbers lay with the French. The Germans had added only the Saxon Corps and the Prussian Guard to the original line. France had added General Manoury's Army, General Gallieni's Army, the absolutely new French Seventh Army, under General Foch, and the British reinforcements. The odds were now about five to four in favor of the French. Besides which, they had the enormous advantage of position.

The Battle of the Marne began on Saturday afternoon, September 5, and the first offensive movement was taken by Manoury. Learning from air scouts that von Kluck was massing his men to the south, evidently driving at the gap between Paris and the Fifth Army, held by the British, Manoury decided to flank von Kluck.

It took just one hour to give both Manoury and von Kluck an unpleasant surprise apiece. Manoury found that von Kluck's artillery, especially when defending a small stream (the Ourcq), was a terrific

obstacle to encounter, even when only reserves were behind it. Von Kluck found that Manoury's force was far more dangerous than he had supposed it to be. Manoury's sudden flank attack made hash of the plans of the First German Army. All that Saturday night, von Kluck's men had to march back, to be ready to face Manoury in the morning.

Manoury, on his part, did not need to be told that von Kluck would recoil. Joffre shifted reserves to Paris. Every taxi-cab, motor bus and private automobile in Paris rushed troops to Manoury in the early dawn. Twelve and fourteen men piled into and onto a single taxi-cab. They hung on the outside, like insects on a leaf; they were packed, on the inside, like sardines in a can. But it was easier and quicker than marching. By 9 o'clock that morning Manoury's army had been reinforced by 70,000 troops. The army was lamentably weak in artillery, however, for field guns cannot be loaded into taxi-cabs. All Sunday, notwithstanding, Manoury held von Kluck at a standstill.

Joffre's Strategical Manoeuvre.

That same Sunday morning, early, the British ambushed two bodies of cavalry, which von Kluck had posted as a precaution against a flank attack, if the British should move north. They did move north. They caught the cavalry by advancing through a wood. They turned shrapnel on them, like a blast from the pit. Into the struggling mass of men and horses the English cavalry swept and finished the rout.

The fortress of Maubeuge fell on Monday, sending reënforcements to von Kluck, whose army was far stronger than that of Manoury. On Monday, therefore, von Kluck commenced to flank Manoury; on Tuesday he did flank him; on Wednesday he almost encircled him, and prepared to swallow him on Thursday. It was a most successful movement —for von Kluck. It remained to see whether it was a successful or a wise manœuvre for the whole strategical plan of the German High Command.

Joffre, seeing his chance, bade the British feel out von Kluck's left wing, not driving him back, but, if possible, decoying him forward. It is this manœuvre, little understood, which gave rise to the mistake made by some magazine writers to the effect that the British failed to drive forward to help the French at the Marne. They didn't drive. They decoyed. Mark what this meant! It meant that all von Kluck's

army was being led westward, the northern wing by Manoury, the southern wing by the British. The German main attack was southeastward. There was, therefore, a steadily thinning German line, and a highly dangerous gap was appearing between von Kluck and von Bülow.

The Fifth French Army, under d'Espérey, had been reënforced by three reserve corps and had become a powerful army of 250,000 men. With the aid of English heavy artillery, lent for the purpose, this army steadily pushed back von Bülow on Sunday, Monday and Tuesday, crossing the Marne and holding the bridgeheads. Von Bülow was eager to flank d'Espérey's left, but every time he did so, he came in contact with the slowly advancing British.

More Strategy by French Generals.

Leaving the new army, Foch's Seventh Army (in some reports miscalled the Ninth), for the moment, it may be pointed out that on this same Sunday, Monday and Tuesday, General Langle de Cary had held firm, and General Sarrail could not be budged from Verdun. There was a tempting chance to drive forward and hit the Crown Prince a blow on Tuesday, but the commanders of both these French armies rejected it as weakening Joffre's main strategic plan. The blow was reserved for Foch.

On Sunday, Foch, in command of one of the strongest French armies (300,000 men, including reserves), sagged back under the driving blows of von Hausen, though the latter had one of the weakest German armies (probably 225,000 men). On Monday, Foch sagged still further. On Tuesday, whether following the manœuvre or whether suddenly embarrassed by his own tactics, the Seventh French Army bent back very awkwardly. General d'Espérey lent Foch an extra army corps to help cover his left.

On Wednesday, at midday, the Germans were in full position to break through between Foch and Langle de Cary. Foch's left had stood firm, but his right had sagged back ten miles. Langle de Cary had stood firm. There was thus a ten-mile-wide diagonal gap between Foch's right and Langle de Cary's army. Von Hausen, wild with eagerness, thinned his line of all the men he could afford to hurl them into this gap, forgetting, as he did so, that he was thinning them at a very dangerous point, just where the plateau of Champagne drops suddenly to the marshes of St. Gond.

At midday, Foch, with a half-smile, ordered the Forty-second Division, one of the crack corps of the French Army, to fall back and rest. All that afternoon, while the skies grew blacker and blacker with a coming thunderstorm and the cannons rumbled louder than the thunder, the Forty-second Division lay grumbling on the grass with piled arms, hearing the battle only two miles away. And von Hausen, with the piercing of the line dangling before his grasp, ever sent more and more men to the southeast.

At exactly four o'clock in the afternoon, the Forty-second Division, rested and eager, received its long-awaited orders. It was ordered to advance through the pine woods, and, taking up position among the trees, to charge forward at five o'clock to the minute. Meantime, an order was sent along the whole French line, bidding them stiffen their resistance at five o'clock, and be ready for a counter-attack. The spring was now drawn tight.

Von Hausen's Wild and Panic-Stricken Flight.

Came five o'clock! Out from the pine woods, shouting with the terrible joy of battle, leaped the Forty-second Division. For a moment the roar of French cries drowned the tumult of the artillery, and then unnumbered batteries of the "Soixante-Quinze," the French 75-millimetre gun, came galloping to the front. That was, throughout the war, the best field weapon, but never did the gunners work as they did that evening.

The Prussian Guard, thinned to a mere shadow of a line by von Hausen's impetuous attempt to force Foch's right wing, could give no more resistance to the French than a paper hoop gives to a circus rider. So furious was the French charge of fresh, well-rested troops, conscious that they were Victory's own thunderbolt, that the Prussian Guard had no time to flee. It was trodden underfoot.

The shouting lines went through!

The extra army corps which d'Espérey had lent to Foch, on the left, followed on the heels of the Forty-second. The very horses of the batteries seemed to know that they were galloping for France, and the guns whirled forward, unlimbered, fired, limbered and galloped forward again. The right flank of von Hausen's Saxon army was cut to pieces.

German communication was excellent. In fifteen minutes von

Hausen learned that his right was broken. His whole army was thus practically entrapped in that gap into which Foch had decoyed him. Five minutes later, von Hausen learned that his line was pierced. The great German drive, to which forty-five years of unceasing military preparation had been given, halted, wavered and went to pieces.

At twenty minutes past five, Foch hurled his reserves forward. No longer were the French retreating, no longer need they shamefacedly pass through villages they were deserting to the foe. The whole force of the strategic square was released. Flight, wild and panic-stricken, was von Hausen's only resource. He turned and fled, the vengeful furies of France close on his heels.

The Finish of the Battle of the Marne.

The thunderstorm, which had held off long enough to allow the French to charge and break the line, now broke over the heads of the Germans in a torrent of rain. Woe for their heavy artillery, then! The roads, rapidly turning to sticky mud, prevented escape, while the lighter 75's could still pursue. The French red-trousered infantry, in the delirious fever of success, could not, would not stop. Hour after hour through that rainy night, the dripping trees saw a slaughter grim and great. Tens of thousands were slain, thousands of prisoners were captured, hundreds of guns fell into French hands and vast stores of ammunition became part of the prize.

Midnight came. Foch was willing to halt, but, wise old soldier that he was, he knew the driving power of a victorious army. Von Hausen, who had allowed himself to be decoyed southwards, had a long way to go before he could regain touch with the German armies, which, on the same day, had been pushed northwards. Not until early morning did the French officers compel the men to halt, and brave men who had fought all day and all night wept with rage that their hands were stayed, even then. Foch was inexorable. He had established his headquarters in La Fère Champenoise, twenty-five miles in advance of his headquarters of the night before. He had established his connections with Langle de Cary on the right and d'Espérey on the left. Before him yawned a gap in the German line, where once von Hausen's army had been.

By seven o'clock of the evening of the flight, von Kluck had received news of von Hausen's disaster. With the prize of Manoury's

army practically in his hands, he was forced to retire, and that swiftly. Otherwise, Foch, advancing next day, could cut off the First and Second German Armies from the Third and Fourth. It was patent that Joffre planned such an offensive. Von Kluck, a really able general, saw his danger. Deep-cut with rage and chagrin, he withdrew his army from the terrible horseshoe into which Manoury had been forced, and retreated all night long, northeastward. Von Bülow did likewise.

When the morning of Thursday, September 6, shed light enough for air scouts to reconnoitre, the full measure of Foch's hammer-blow became apparent. One German army had been annihilated, two were retreating in haste. Manoury had escaped from the dangerous trap by only a few hours; Paris was relieved; the British, practically untouched in the battle, were moving forward; d'Espérey was advancing in full force; Foch, like a giant rejoicing in his strength, held an advanced position; Langle de Cary was on the move; and Sarrail, at Verdun, had held the pivotal key with a stubborn gallantry that resisted alike the mass of men and weight of metal.

Paris was saved. The Allied armies were intact. The German drive was recoiling, whipped. The great conflict on the result of which the German Empire had placed its whole dependence was over. The Battle of the Marne was won!

CHAPTER IV.

THE COMPULSION OF TRENCH WARFARE.

The Germans Hurled Back in Confusion—Von Zwehl and the Siege Guns—The Defeated Hosts "Dig in" to Get a Foothold—Crossing the Aisne, First and Second Phases—The Bombardment of Rheims—Vandalism of the Cathedral—Beginning of Four Years' Deadlock.

IT happens not infrequently in war that the finest generalship is shown during a retreat, not during a victory. The British retreat from Mons to the Marne proved Generals French, Haig and Smith-Dorrien to be commanders of the most supreme ability. The same period showed up Lanrezac's weakness, and, as has been mentioned, he was superseded by General d'Espérey.

The German retreat from the Marne to the Aisne, covering the period September 8-12, 1918, told the same lessons. General von Kluck demonstrated himself to be an able commander. Although Manoury, the British, and d'Espérey were all on his heels, he extricated his army in good order. He handled his rearguard actions with firmness and fierceness, though his troops were punished severely by the nimble and deadly French 75's. He began his retreat, as has been said, on the evening of Wednesday, September 9, the day of the final victory of the Marne.

That same evening, von Hausen was in flight, not in retreat. The French pursued him all night. He was unable to re-form at all. It was a most disgraceful rout. The German General Staff promptly forced von Hausen to relinquish his command, a pretext of illness being given, and the Saxon forces were divided between von Kluck and von Bülow. The latter general had not been faced with any great difficulty in the first part of his retreat, for, during the four days' Battle of the Marne, he had been forced steadily to the northward, holding his line in good order.

When, however, Foch commenced to march forward on that drenching morning of Thursday, September 10, after the Victory of the Marne, von Bülow's troubles commenced. Knowing every yard of the

ground, Foch drove at the two flanks of von Bülow's army, bending it in on itself. Ordinarily, this would be bad tactics, for such an arc strengthens the opposing army, but Foch knew that between the two horns of the enemy's forces were the Marshes of St. Gond. Now, marshes are a very different question before and after a heavy rain. Twenty-four hours before, von Bülow had not troubled much about the low-lying land. But a torrential downpour all night, and still continuing, made those marshes boggier every minute. Before evening, in spite of the difficulty of moving his men, Foch turned von Bülow's flank and almost the whole of two German army corps were flung into the slimy mud. The French General magnanimously forbade the artillery to fire on the entrapped invaders. About 2,000 men perished, 60,000 were made prisoners and forty large guns were taken. This quickened von Bülow's retreat to the Aisne. Friday, September 11, was occupied by the two German commanders in taking up positions on the new line of defense.

Germany's Defense of the Aisne.

This line was of unexampled strength. A well-known strategist, writing of the Battles of the Aisne, says of the position: "From the Ural Mountains to the Atlantic Ocean, there is no natural line so strong as that which was then taken up by the Germans." There were several minor shifts of line, but for clearness only that one will be mentioned which formed the basis for the final intrenchment. This line ran, roughly, through Noyon, Vic-sur-Aisne, Soissons, Craonne, then dipped down towards Rheims, Ville-sur-Tourbe, Varennes and Forges, a small place on the Meuse, north of Verdun.

The key of this position was a triangular wooded height known as the Craonne plateau. The base of this triangle is the steep cliff or series of cliffs commanding the River Aisne, running from Vic to Craonne. Between Vic and Noyon the plateau slopes gently but dominatingly down to the valley of the Oise; on the east, between Craonne and Laon, it comes down sharply; while the slope to the north is gradual, facilitating German transport. From Rethel to Vic run bluffs from 400 to 700 feet high, overlooking the river, with natural spurs jutting out from point to point to enfilade the stream and banks.

Events on the Aisne showed that the German General Staff had not been blind to the possibility of non-success in their first drive. The

engineer corps of the several armies engaged in the attack did not join in the advance to the Marne. For more than a week, work had been proceeding night and day on the Craonne plateau, with the intention of creating an invulnerable fortress, strong as the Rock of Gibraltar. Long before the war, plans had been drawn up for the defense of the Aisne. The time had come for Germany to put them into effect. Every spur was bristling with guns and there was not a bridge which was not under the concentrated fire of both heavy and light artillery.

It will be recalled that Maubeuge had fallen on Monday, September 7, during the actual progress of the Battle of the Marne. The defense of Maubeuge was heroic, but, viewed from the movement of the war as a whole, its importance lay only in one fact. Its resistance kept General von Zwehl and the siege guns employed there so long that the heavy artillery employed in the reduction of that fortress was not available for any part of the Battle of the Marne. Had von Hausen's advance, for example, been protected by von Zwehl's guns, Foch would have never been able to break through and the Battle of the Marne would have been a very different story.

Guns Hauled by German Military Slaves.

On Tuesday, September 8, the great guns commenced to crawl forward. On Wednesday came the German disaster, and, in the evening, the terrific rainstorm. Von Zwehl, who was well informed as to the plans of the General Staff, realized that after von Hausen's defeat, it was imperative that he should get his guns as rapidly as possible to the defensive lines on the Aisne. But the rain poured in torrents. The thirteen traction engines could not move the guns alone and von Zwehl set the infantry at hauling them, with long ropes, hundreds of men to a fourth part of a gun. Like the slaves of Egypt who built the pyramids, von Zwehl's military slaves toiled under blows, curses and threats of death. During the last twenty-four hours of the march, the 18,000 troops and the guns covered forty-one miles. This seems incredible, but it was so. Human nature rebelled and red mutiny showed its head for a second, but von Zwehl had a nature as hard as the steel of his guns. Every murmurer was shot dead in his tracks. The death-potent monsters crawled on. The guns reached Laon at 6 A. M. of September 13, and before seven o'clock they were in position and in action.

If von Zwehl had been a day later, the Germans would have lost the possibility of holding the Aisne, for, under that battle-scarred old warrior, was not only the heavy siege train intended for the reduction of Paris, but also most of the heavy artillery belonging to von Kluck's and von Bülow's armies, which they had left in his charge in order to lighten their movements in pursuit of the supposedly fleeing French and British. But von Zwehl got there, and the stupendous roar that was mouthed across the Aisne Valley at seven o'clock that Sunday morning warned the Allied Forces that the heaviest artillery the world had ever seen was in position against them. It took four years to dislodge von Zwehl's guns.

The Crossing of the Aisne.

Since the famous "Crossing of the Aisne" by the British, on Septermer 13, 1914, has been pronounced "one of the greatest military feats in modern history," it is of interest to mark what was done and how it was done. The Aisne is a wide, unfordable, sluggish river. Every foot, yes, every inch, of it was under big-gun, howitzer, machine-gun and rifle fire. The guns were under the direction of von Zwehl, and no man alive understood artillery better. That same morning, moreover, the already enormous armies of von Kluck and von Bülow had been reënforced by the arrival of a supporting army under Field Marshal von Heeringen, who was released from the Alsace-Lorraine campaign by the failure of the French to achieve more than a series of local victories at heavy cost. Von Heeringen at once took the position of generalissimo over von Bülow and von Kluck. That put a masterly tactician in command of the operations on the Aisne. The British task was to cross the river and storm an impregnable height, against heavy odds, under a withering fire.

A Third Army Corps, under General Pulteney, had been added to the army, the Second still being under Dorrien-Smith and the First under Haig. Sir John French, of course, was commander-in-chief. At daybreak, September 13, Pulteney's corps advanced on Soissons. The engineers succeeded in putting a pontoon bridge across with a loss of half their number. Howitzer fire promptly destroyed the bridge. A regiment of French Turcos went across in rowboats and had a fierce struggle in the streets of Soissons, but achieved nothing. Pulteney then tried to cross by the destroyed bridge at Venizel. Under a hail of

shrapnel the engineers repaired the bridge and four regiments—or parts of them—crossed and gathered at Bucy-de-Long early in the afternoon, under the direct fire of the great hill of Vregny. There was no shelter, each minute meant deaths by scores, so Pulteney's men worked swiftly down into a little ravine and there intrenched. The heights frowned above them, but, at least, they were across the river. Few they were, and unsupported.

The Second Army Corps, under Smith-Dorrien, tried to force the bridge at Condé, soon after daybreak. That was simply inviting annihilation, and had to be abandoned. The British commander then divided his force into two detachments, east and west of the bridge. By pontoons, both got over. That was a case, also, of hasty intrenching. Deaths averaged a hundred a minute. A few men had been rafted over during the night near Missy, three at a time on a raft. It was courageous, but useless. For sixteen days those men had to stay in their dug-outs without food, their only water what they could snatch at night, between star-shells.

Storming the Heights of the Aisne.

An Irish and Scotch brigade of the First Corps, under Haig, fought like Paladins. The bridge at Arcy had been destroyed, but one girder still spanned the stream. Even under the most favorable circumstances, it would have been walking giddy enough to turn the brain. Under the hail of shell, of machine-gun fire and of rifle fire it was a feat apparently beyond the nerves of any man. The brigade went across it. Not a man hesitated, though many a hundred fell dead into the stream below.

Sunday night beheld a lurid flame of battle hitherto unseen in the world. The whole length of the Aisne River cliffs was red as though under a Bengal fire flare from the continuous spitting of the guns. Searchlights played maliciously up and down, star shells and calcium balloons burst or floated above the valley. In that evil light, of red, of yellow and of ghastly white coruscations, amid the never-ceasing reverberation of the cannonade, engineer companies worked to construct bridges, till the last man was killed, and then other companies stepped forward to take their place. In the teeth of a sinister hissing of bullets and shrapnel, small bodies of infantry moved forward to cross and join their comrades in the trenches on the other side. Most fell, but some got over. It took all the roar of the cannonade to overpower with

its noise the sound of moaning that rose from the wounded in that stricken valley.

To the east, that same Sunday, the Fifth French Army, under d'Espérey, crossed, without great difficulty. Their task lay ahead of them, for the Craonne plateau, at that point, sloped down to the plain rather than to the river.

Monday was notable for the German defense of a sugar factory, which was held in a manner worthy of the best traditions of war. The British attacked with two regiments, then with three, with four and with five. The Germans hurled them back. Twice the Teutons were driven out. Twice they forced their way in again. Not until the Guards were added and the Germans were outnumbered more than two to one did they give ground. Most of them died at their posts. That sugar factory held back an entire army corps for more than half a day. By evening, however, Haig had made good an intrenched position on the plateau itself, which held for more than three weeks of severe fighting. Haig never talks of himself, but he said once: "The greatest triumph the men under my command achieved in this war, in my opinion, was the storming of the heights of the Aisne."

Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne.

Von Heeringen and von Zwehl were a difficult combination to outmanœuvre. The next day, Tuesday, September 15, they launched a whirlwind counter-offensive against Manoury, with the Sixth French Army, intrenched at Nampcel, at the extreme west of the line. The French were crumpled up and thrown back like pieces of paper before a gale. The Germans regained control of the spurs guarding the Aisne near the Morsain ravine.

There was no chance on the east, either, to catch the Iron General of the Guns napping. The Fifth French Army fought with great gallantry on Wednesday, but the natural steepness of the Craonne plateau, mounting that incredible quantity of guns, was too strong a force.

On Thursday, Manoury, on the west, revenged himself and retook the quarries. This eased the pressure on the British line. Then von Zwehl's artillery drove him out again. With each new attack, the Germans launched a fresh bombardment at the city of Soissons. At last Manoury managed to make a strong enough intrenchment to hold the quarries and that end of the line was deadlocked.

These six days, then, September 13-18, constituted what may be called the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne. It proved, beyond a doubt, two things. Of these the first was that man-power alone, no matter of what courage and gallantry, cannot storm heights held by modern machine-gun fire. The other was that no direct gun fire, however powerful, can force men out of well-made trenches.

On the 18th, then, Manoury was in the quarries, the British Third Corps had some small bodies of men intrenched on the northern bank of the river, but could do nothing further; the Second Corps was in a similar position; Haig, with the First Corps, had secured a footing on the plateau, but could not advance, being unsupported; d'Espérey, with the Fifth French Army, had found Craonne impregnable. If the Germans had not succeeded in their attack, they had done so in their defense. The deadlock was absolute.

The Eastern Phase of the Battle of the Aisne centered around Rheims, and entirely different armies were brought into play. The defense of the Craonne plateau had been divided between the First German Army, under von Kluck; the Second German Army, under von Bülow, and the Seventh German Army, which had come up with von Heeringen. It had, also, the heavy siege trains, under von Zwehl. Opposing it, as has been shown, were the Sixth French Army, under Manoury; the British Army, under Sir John French; and the Fifth French Army, under d'Espérey.

Futile Attempts to Dislodge the French Armies.

On the line from Craonne to Metz were the German Third Army, under the Duke of Wurtemburg; and the Fifth German Army, under the German Crown Prince. Opposing them were, respectively, the Seventh French Army, under Foch; and the Fourth French Army, under Langle de Cary.

The attack began suddenly on Friday, September 18, when the Duke of Wurtemburg threw his right wing forward against Foch, under the direct leadership of the generalissimo, von Heeringen. It was a sharp blow, well delivered, and Foch fell back. He took up a position at Souain and was hard driven to it to keep his line intact. However, the wizard-like handling of the French batteries of 75's saved the day, and by nightfall Foch had brought up his reserves and Joffre had sent reënforcements. Foch, the master tactician, placed and intrenched his

troops in such wise that they were not to be reached by the distant heavy artillery. If the Germans were to break into Rheims, they would only be safe if Foch were out of the way. Since artillery would not reach, they must carry Foch's position by assault.

Against Foch's troops, lightly intrenched between Pouillon and the Mountain of Rheims, von Heeringen threw enormous masses of men. At irregular intervals, for four days and nights, the gray-clad battalions flung forward. But while the French had no such heavy artillery as the Germans, they had not acted in vain when they had ordered the Creusot works to turn out the 75-mm. guns by hundreds. Against German mass-drives those light field guns—much more powerful than their three-inch calibre indicates—cut swathes of death.

Again and again and yet again von Heeringen ordered the charge. As many times it was hurled back. The night of September 19-20 was the culmination. Four successive attacks were made on that one night. And when bright sunshine burst on the scene next morning, the French lines still stood firm, while, so far as the eye could see, lay little heaps and long lines of gray figures, some moving feebly, but most of them still.

Two Thousand German Hussars Annihilated.

The Battle of the Aisne, indeed, was over, but September 26 was to see an aftermath engagement which hurt German pride sorely. At dawn of that day all that were left of the redoubtable Prussian Guards, about 16,000 men, made a swift sortie to try and cut the railway line between Rheims and Verdun. A French aid scout, who was already in the air at daybreak, saw this move and warned his commander.

Foch could think quickly. He ordered a regiment of cavalry at full gallop to occupy the small village of Auberive, just to annoy the advancing Prussian Guards. Meanwhile, the light artillery, which were at Jouchery, five miles away, were ordered to come up at topmost speed, and the infantry, also, at the double.

The Prussian Guard reached Auberive and the French cavalry rode forward prepared to the charge. The German commander was puzzled by this, for he feared that the cavalry might be only a screen for a large force behind. Accordingly, he halted and sent up air scouts to find out what was before him. This caused half an hour's delay, a vital half-hour. The scouts reported only a regiment of cavalry ahead, but a detachment of artillery coming up from Jouchery.

The German commander fumed at having been stopped by a mere regiment of cavalry, marched forward and captured Auberive within an hour. Before doing so, however, he detached 2,000 of the Death's Head Hussars, one of the proudest cavalry corps in the German service, to surprise those French field guns coming up on the trot. They went, those Hussars, delighting in the certain seizure of the guns, for by no means could the French know of their approach.

The French artillery did not know. But, through a gap in the trees, the Hussars were seen not more than two minutes' ride away. Then came the value of manœuvres. In ninety-four seconds—by the record of one of the artillery officers—the teams were unharnessed, the guns were in position and the gunners at their places. As the gun numbers fell into place, the Hussars charged at less than a hundred yards' range. The shrapnel burst. The line melted. Again the guns spoke, and there rose above their crackle, the cries of the wounded and the screams of horses in pain. A third time the battery fired. There were very few left now, not more than a hundred or so, but they were charging still. A fourth round and a fifth! When the smoke cleared, neither man nor horse was standing. Four minutes had passed since the Hussars had been seen through a gap in the trees, and, of those 2,000 gallant horsemen, nor man nor beast escaped.

The Bombardment of Rheims.

Meanwhile the infantry from Jouchery had come up at the double. Italian troops, only, can move faster than the French. The Zouaves had outstripped their comrades and were taking the Prussian Guards in the rear. Von Heeringen saw the failure of his plan. Foch had acted too quickly. Either he must abandon the Guard or make a frontal attack, to draw off Foch. It meant a loss of men with no purpose gained than to remedy a mistake, but there was no other way. A force of 3,000 men of the Guards Corps was hurled at the French line. They charged five times. "As they came up for the fifth assault," says a writer of that action, "a wild cheer of admiration broke out along the French line." But there was no appreciation of gallantry in the mouths of the 75's and after the fifth assault only 125 men were left, most of them wounded. They surrendered honorably.

Much has been written and said on the question of the bombardment of Rheims, as an open town, and of the vandalism of the Germans,

who deliberately fired on its cathedral. The Germans reply that the town was defended, which made it liable to bombardment, and that its towers were occupied for observation purposes. The artillery lieutenant who claimed to have fired at the Cathedral claimed that he did so only as a warning, and fired only two shells. Richard Harding Davis produced abundant evidence to show that this statement was untrue. There is abundant evidence to prove that Rheims Cathedral was wrecked in a deliberate desire for vengeance.

At the same time, it would be misleading to suggest that the Germans did not have the right to fire on Rheims. They did. The town was defended. It had to be defended. As a railway junction of the highest importance, controlling the railway which sent all the supplies to Verdun, Foch could not possibly have abandoned it to the Germans, simply because of the beauty of the Cathedral.

The Power and Capacity of Guns and Rifles.

Moreover, Rheims has a historic value as the shrine of France, where her kings were crowned; and a romantic value because of its association with the Maid, Joan of Arc. For that reason, also, it would have been unwise to have allowed the Germans to occupy a city with so many memories for France. Often a sentimental reason is of the highest military importance in its relation to the morale of the army. No, Rheims could not be left undefended. If defended, it was unavoidable that some shots might fall on the glorious Cathedral. But to make a definite mark of the Cathedral, as was done, that was Vandalism, ruthless and reckless barbarism, without a show of excuse.

The deadlock on the Aisne established that new mode of war, known as trench warfare. The necessity of this merits a word. In what has been said in the foregoing two chapters with regard to the effect of the 42-centimeter siege guns on the forts of Liége, of Namur and of Maubeuge, it has been made clear that permanent fortifications, even though made of steel-reënforced concrete, cannot resist the effects of modern high-explosive shells dropped from long-range, high-angle howitzers.

At the same time, the British feat of crossing the Aisne and the German mass attacks on Foch's lines near Rheims had negatived the old von Moltke theory that any place can be taken by storm, so long as the storming party was strong enough.

Modern field artillery has changed all that. The French 75-mm. can fire fifteen shells a minute. Each shrapnel shell holds 300 bullets. That means that one gun can send 4,500 bullets a minute into an advancing army, the bullets scattering fan-wise after the burst of the shell. It only takes eight men to handle a 75-mm., including drivers. A machine-gun, handled by two men, fires 600 shots a minute, and in the hands of a good gunner its destructiveness is deadly. Modern rifles have a killing range at an almost flat trajectory of a thousand yards and a modern rifle will fire thirty shots a minute.

It would not require a very large force to pour 100,000 bullets per minute into an advancing force. As any charge, no matter how good the cover, would take at least three minutes, it would face 300,000 bullets. Even if only one out of every twenty bullets killed or wounded an enemy, the casualties on that charge alone would be 15,000 men.

A trench, however, is curiously unattackable. It is not to be reached by direct gun fire at all. Even for dropping fire it affords only a very small target. In the first winter of the war, before new artillery tactics had been built up (such as barrage, etc.), the trench was impregnable. Of course, that was true for both sides. If the French could not push the Germans back, neither could the Germans continue their drive onward. Open operations became impossible on the Aisne, except at a fearful cost of life, and, even with that cost, actions were not productive of any important result.

Offense and Defense in War.

War, be it remembered, like all great forces in the world, is a balancing of opposites. At one period, attack is stronger than defense; in the next, defense is stronger than attack. In the two months of August and September this change took place twice.

When the war opened, the defense of the forts of Liége, Namur and Maubeuge was thought to be stronger than any attack which could be brought against them. The 42-centimeter howitzers destroyed that idea. The attack took the lead.

Wars of attack mean quick and decisive engagements. Wars of antagonistic defense mean long and indecisive engagements. Had the Germans been able to carry all before them in a war of attack, the war would have been short. The moment that they were compelled to change it into a war of defense, it necessarily became long-drawn-out.

It could not be otherwise. It could not become decisive until it turned again into a war of attack. How this came about will be treated in a later chapter, showing the shiftings of the battle-line, and the entire change of battle tactics.

But, throughout all changes, the Aisne line never moved materially. The Craonne plateau remained a German stronghold. Rheims, though always under fire of guns from near the Craonne plateau, remained a French stronghold. At various times, during the next four years, dispatches related this or that minor victory for either side. Often, by the use of maps drawn to large scale, the capture of a thousand yards would look larger than a victory which gained several score of miles, drawn to a small scale. This was highly confusing to the casual reader of newspapers and magazines, though, of course, it was unavoidable as picturing the news of the day, week or month.

The essential thing to be remembered by the reader who wishes to gain a true picture of the war as a whole is that the main defensive line taken up by the Germans on the Aisne on September 12, 1914, was still in their hands in the summer of 1918. Not until the actual Allied drive which ended the war began, did the defenses of the Aisne fall.

CHAPTER V.

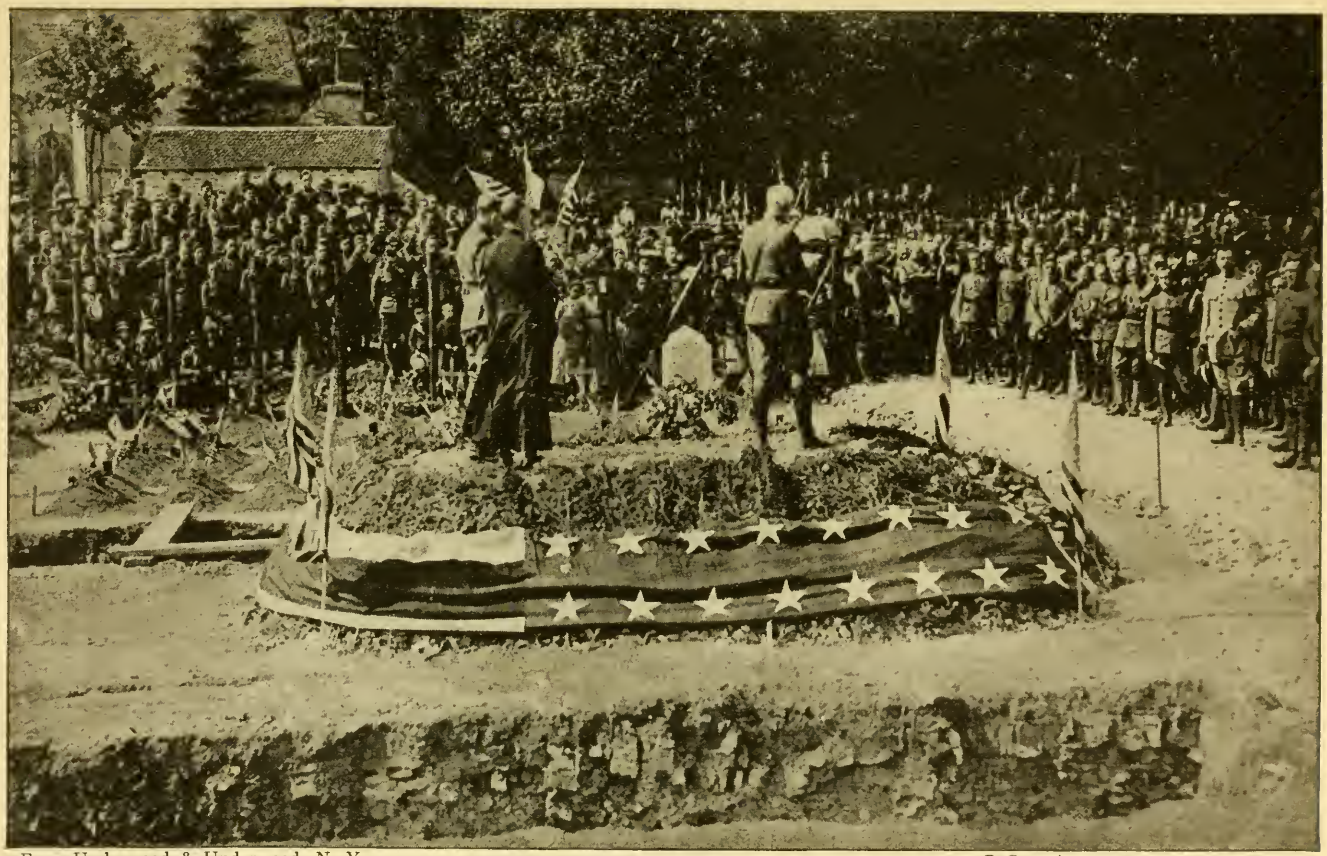
THE RACE OF TWO ARMIES TO THE SEA.

Capture of Brussels—Siege and Fall of Antwerp—Exile—Atrocities of Aershot to Louvain—The Battles of the Yser—Dixmude, Holding the Line—Ypres, the Key—Passchendaele Ridge—Poison Gas—Unconquered Belgium.

SO far, the story of the war has lent itself to clean-cut and straightforward narrative. The next phase was more complicated. It is necessary to show why. There are four gaps in the mountainous and hilly country between Germany and Paris, one north of the Ardennes, near Liége; one by the Luxemburg frontier; one north of the Vosges at Nancy; one south of the Vosges at Belfort. Only the first two were involved in the drive on Paris. Their story has been told. The Germans drove at Paris, were stopped at the Marne, fell back and intrenched on the Aisne. So told, the matter is simple enough.

The next group of moves was considerably more involved, but, if the main issues be kept clear, a tolerably consistent picture may be presented. The northward race to the sea resolved itself into two main desires. The first was the German desire to seize and hold as much invaded territory as possible. The second was the French desire to flank the German armies on the Aisne and cut one of their main railroads of supply. This railway ran on the western side of the Craonne plateau, up the Oise Valley and thence northwestward through St. Quentin and Maubeuge, dividing to Brussels and Liége.

With this aim in view, Joffre took up a new strategical plan. As early as September 18, at the close of the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne, he had seen that the war had become one of defence. It had become static, rather than dynamic. If the Germans could not be forced out of their holes on the Aisne by frontal attack, then an attempt must be made to get in behind them, to cut their communication and hinder their sources of supply. By a combination of speed and organization, there was a possibility that the main railroad might be straddled by Allied troops.



From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

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CEREMONIES FOR OUR DEAD HEROES.

An American cemetery at the General Headquarters of the American Expeditionary Forces in France. Here the bodies of some of our soldier heroes were buried with all the rights and ceremonies of a military funeral.

Photo from Western Newspaper Union.

SENLIS, FRANCE, WHERE THE ARMISTICE WAS SIGNED.

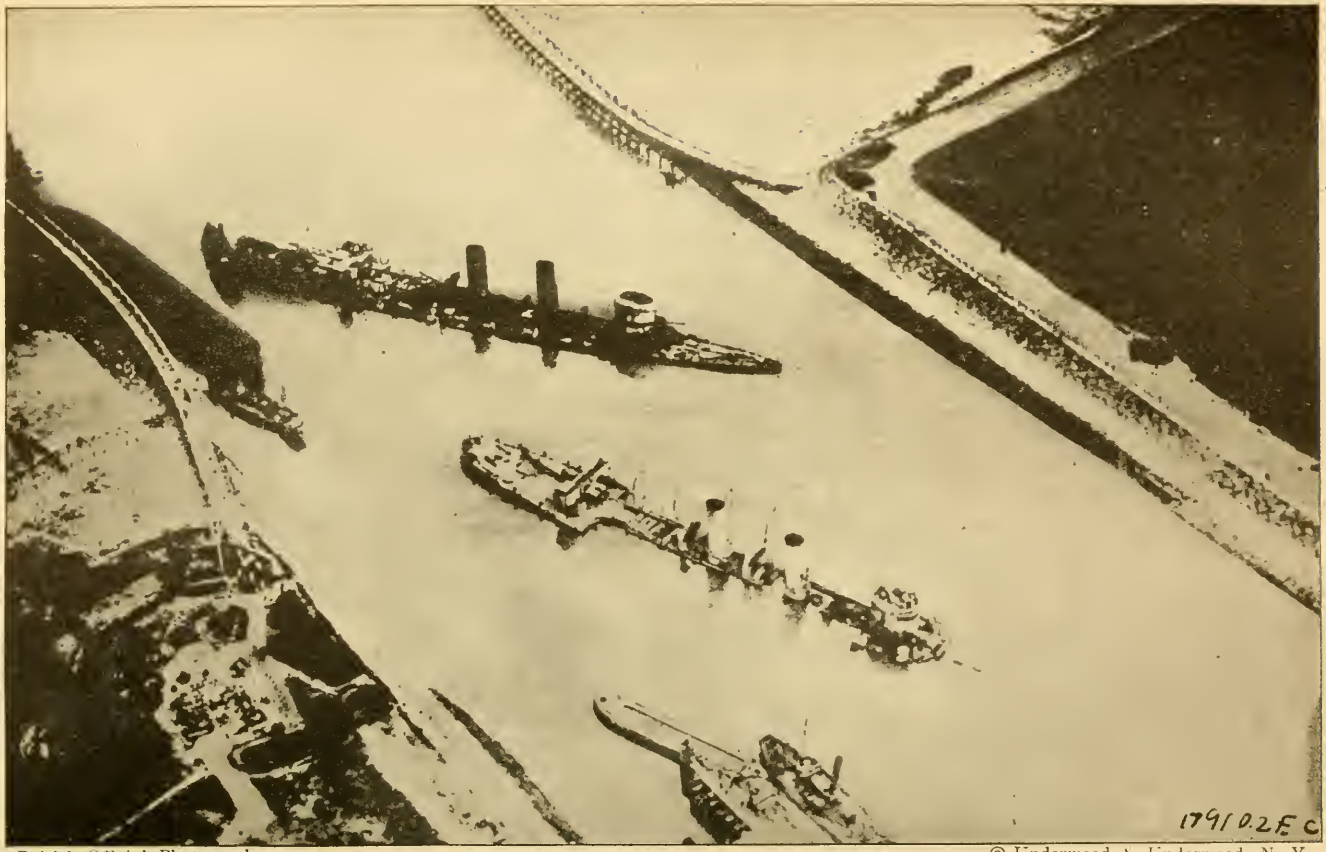
Amid the ruins wrought by the Huns the envoys of Germany signed the truce terms that victoriously ended the struggle for democracy.

From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE FIGHTING U. S. A. MARINE BRIGADE IN BELLEAU WOOD.

Here the Germans were not only stopped in their march toward Paris, but "knocked out." The furious and fast fighting of the Marines proved their superiority. The Hun was badly beaten. The soldier applying the bayonet is an American Negro.

Drawn by Georges Scott for "L'Illustration," Paris.



British Official Photograph.

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THE ZEEBRUGGE CANAL BLOCKED BY OLD BRITISH CRUISERS.

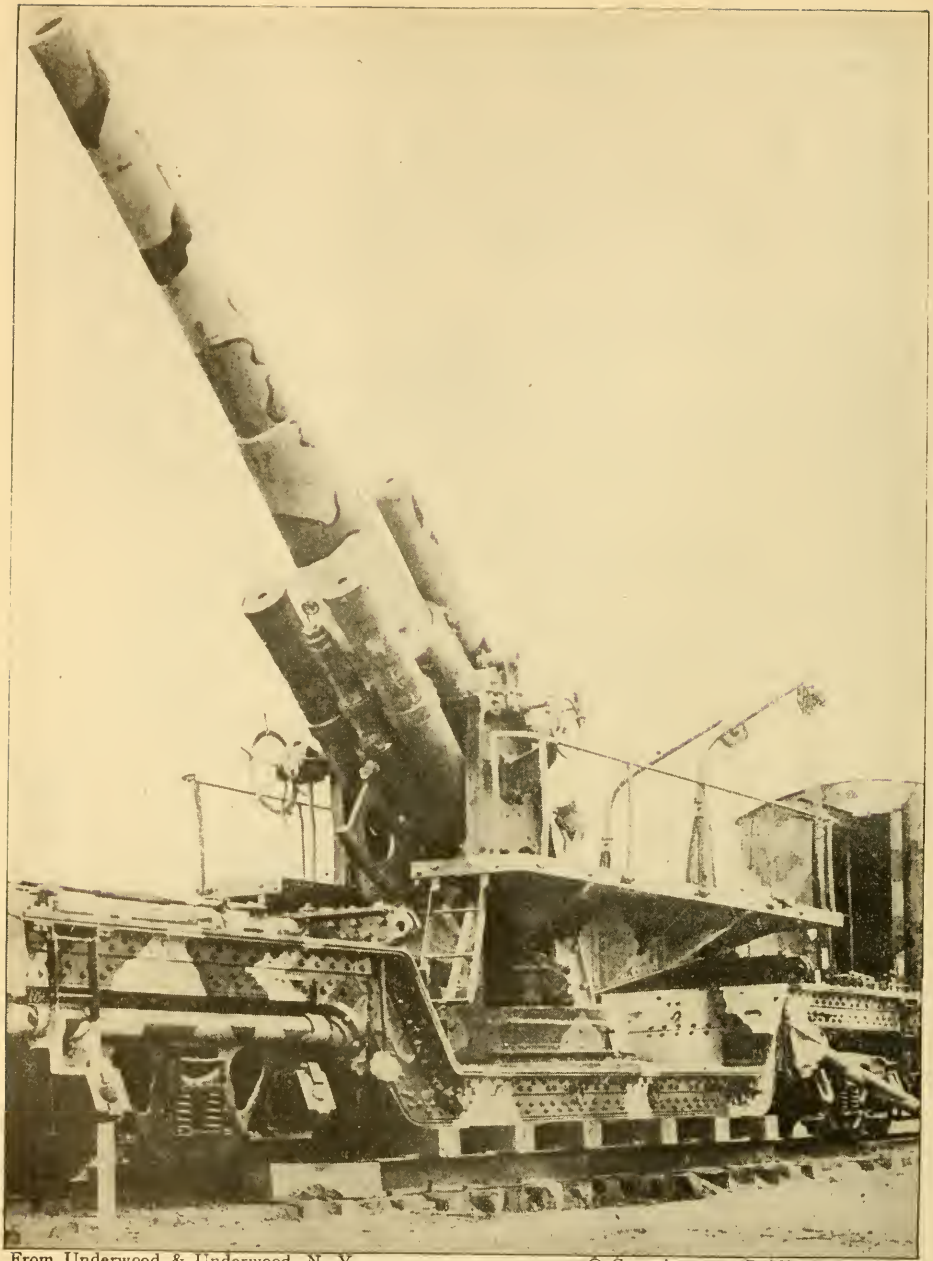
Photographed by an airman at a low altitude. This shows the old ships, which were filled with concrete and sunk by the British Navy, thereby blocking this outlet for U-boats.

British Official Photograph.

© Western Newspaper Union.

FAMOUS FIGHTERS—"THE BLACK WATCH."

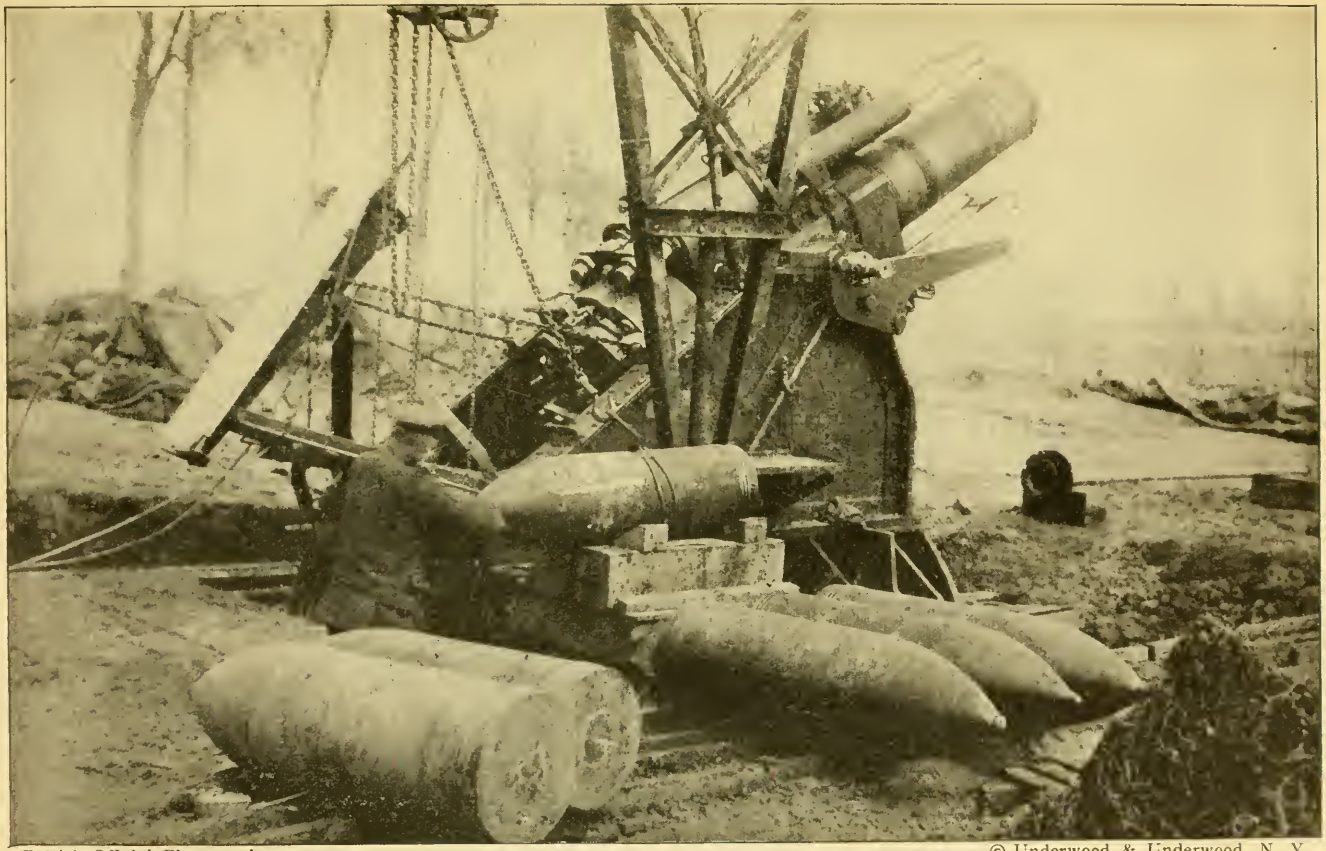
Some of the best fighters in the British Army, resting by the roadside after having driven the Germans back in the "Fight of the Woods," near Rheims.



From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y. © Committee on Public Information.

THE GUN WITH THE PUNCH.

Huge American railway artillery of 16-inch calibre for the U. S. Army This big gun can be put into position in 15 minutes and will fire all around the horizon. The ammunition car for shell and powder is attached.



British Official Photograph. © Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

A MONSTER BRITISH HOWITZER NICKNAMED "GRANNY."

One of the guns which blasted the way along the Menin Road in the big offensive. "Shells hastily delivered and with a punch," that's all Granny had to say. Any German trooper will vouch for its accuracy.

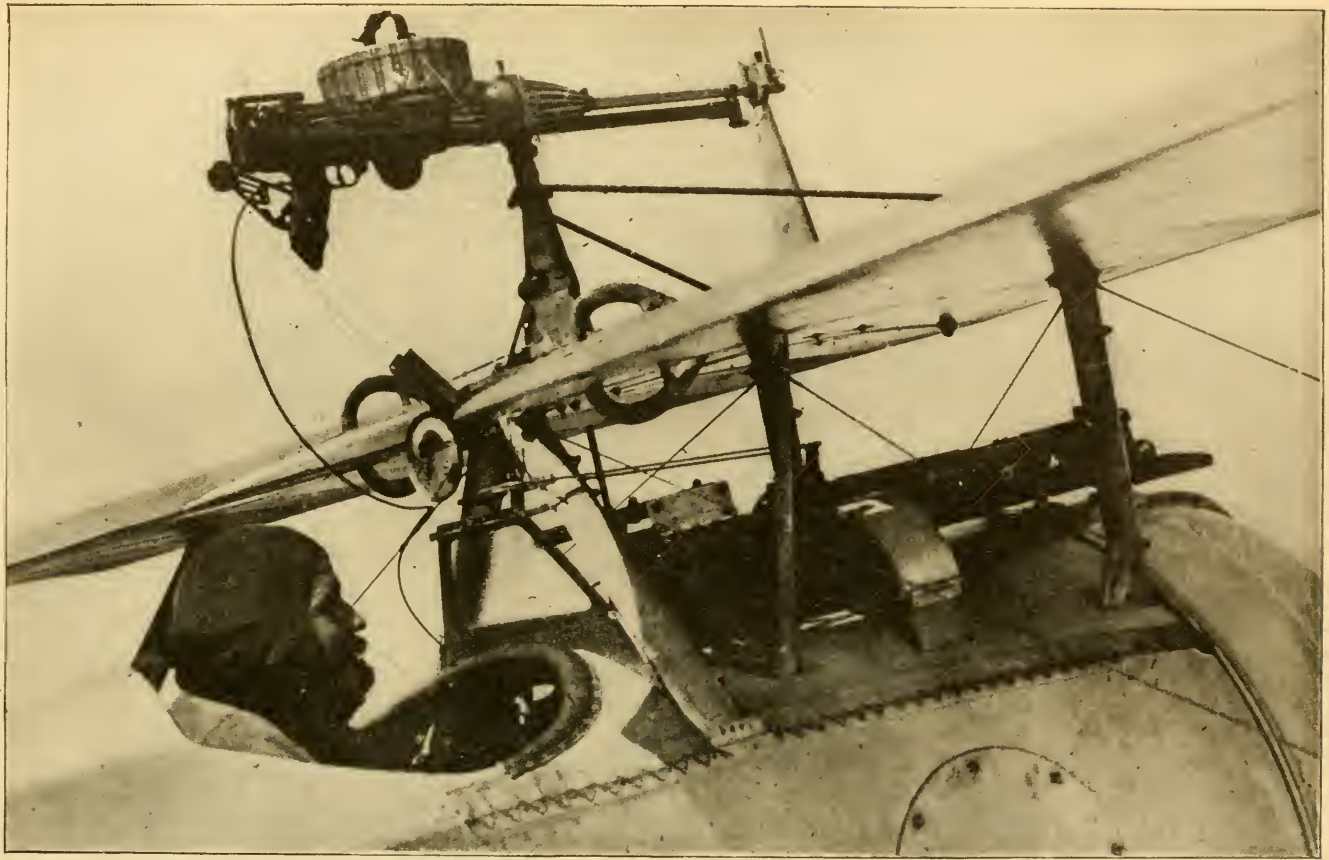


Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

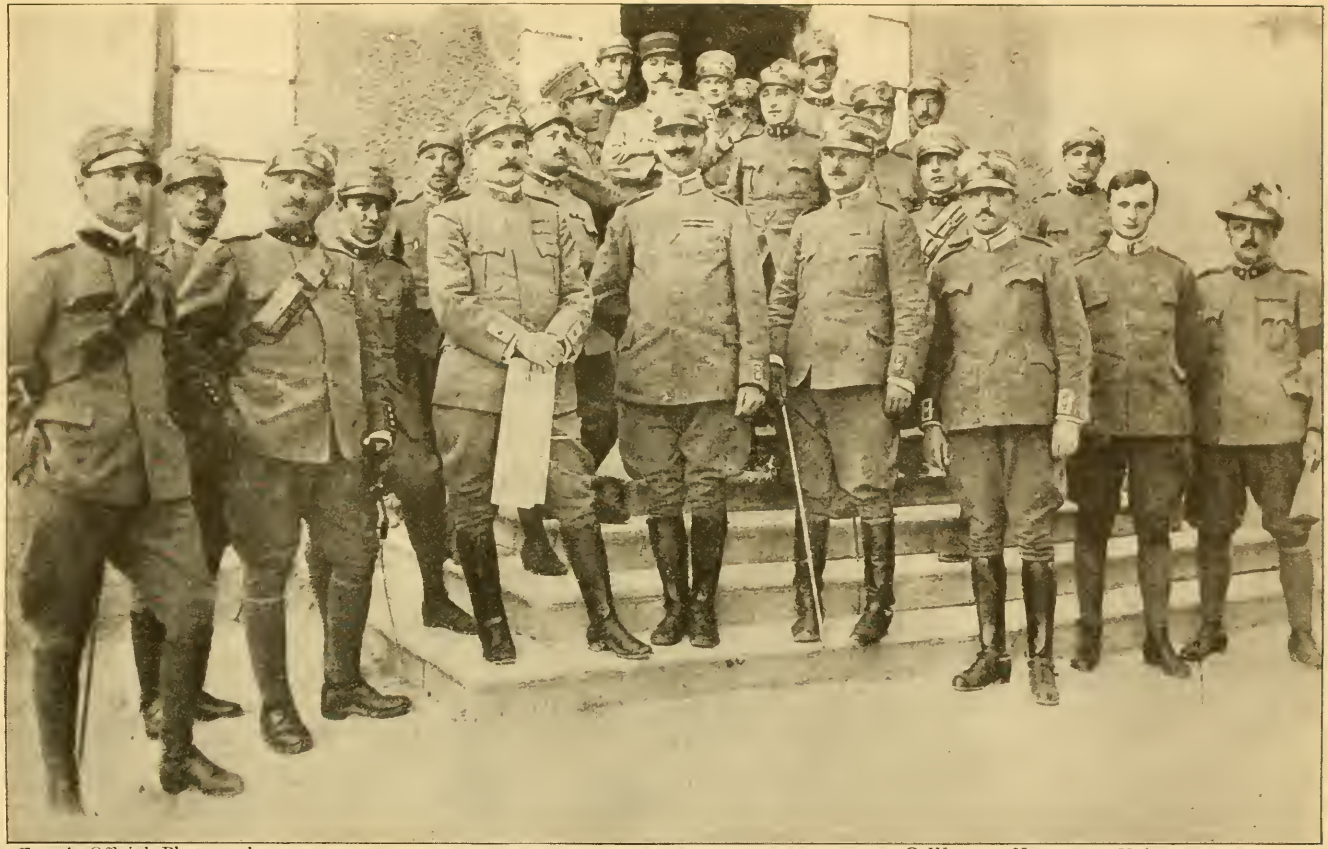
A RAPID FIRING GUN ON A FRENCH AEROPLANE.

This remarkable picture from a close-up photograph shows the little Nieuport "scout" plane. The electric gun is worked from the pilot seat by a wire. It produced great havoc among German birdmen.

From Western Newspaper Union Photo Service. © Committee on Public Information.

UNITED STATES ARMY BALLOONISTS READY TO ASCEND.

The pilot with the telephone is always in direct communication with the ground. Facing him is a student artillery observer holding field glasses. Hanging on the basket are parachutes in stops ready to break out if needed.



French Official Photograph.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

ITALIAN GENERAL AND STAFF AT FRENCH FRONT.

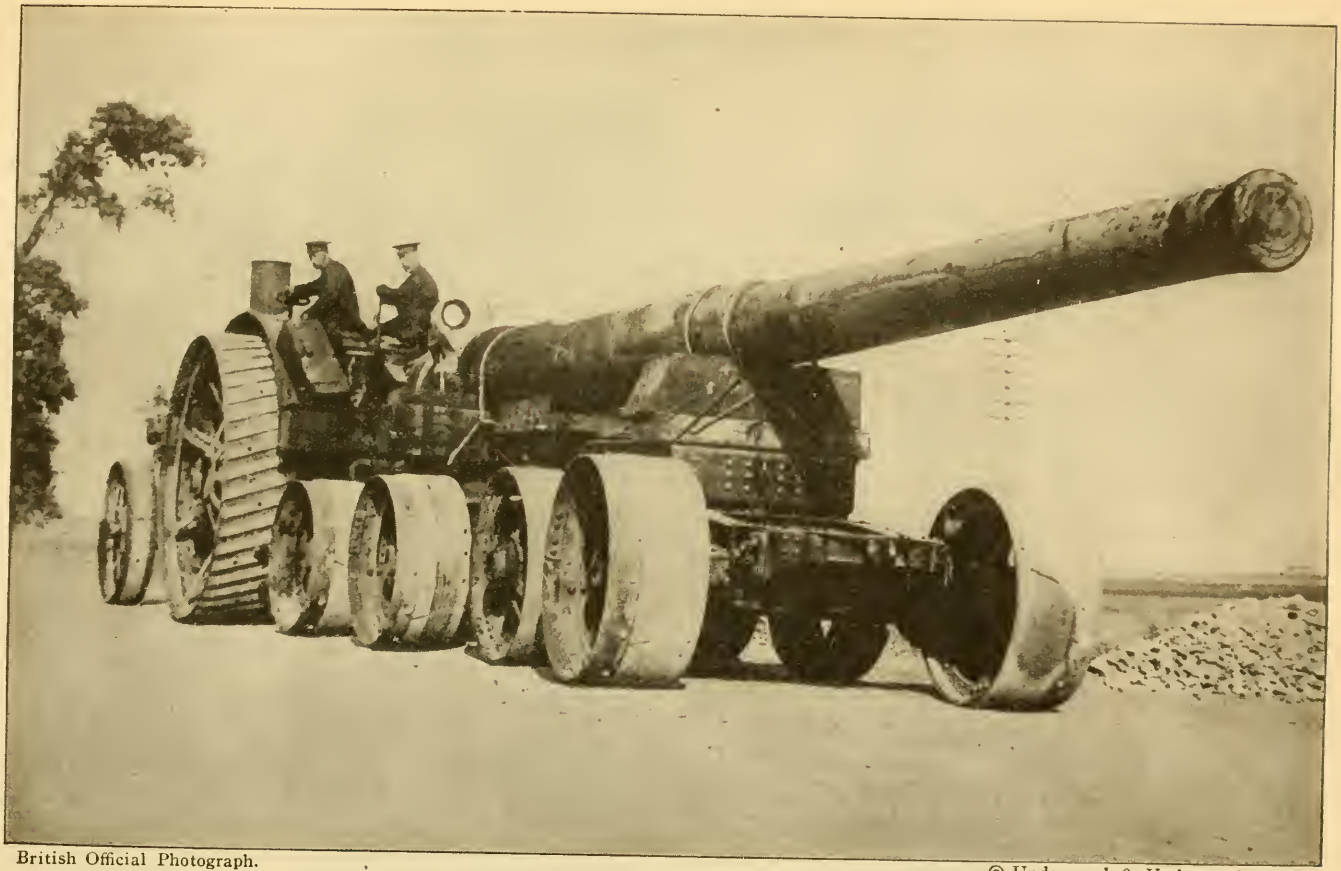
Many Italian troops were sent to France to help the Allies push back the German hordes. This photograph shows an Italian divisional general and his staff.

British Official Photograph.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE RETURN OF THE HOLY SCROLL IN JERUSALEM.

General E. H. H. Allenby, Commander-in-Chief of the British Army in the Holy Land, is seen seated at the left. The ceremony was very impressive.



British Official Photograph.

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MAMMOTH BRITISH GUN "KILL JOY."

Used by the British forces in Flanders. No gun of more power was used by any belligerent. It is greater than the "Busy Berthas" of the Germans.

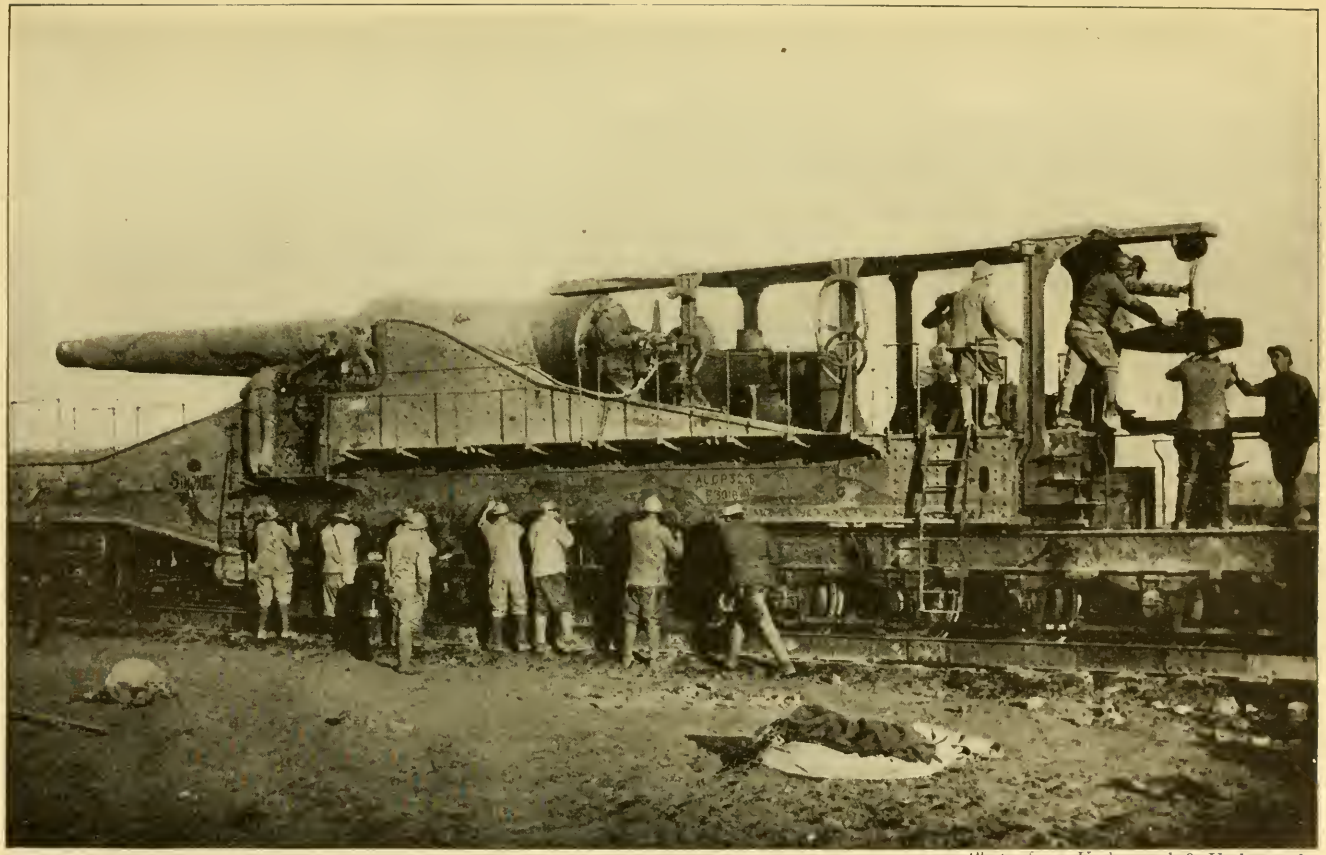


Photo from Underwood & Underwood.

THE GUN WITH THE PUNCH. A FRENCH 320 M.M.

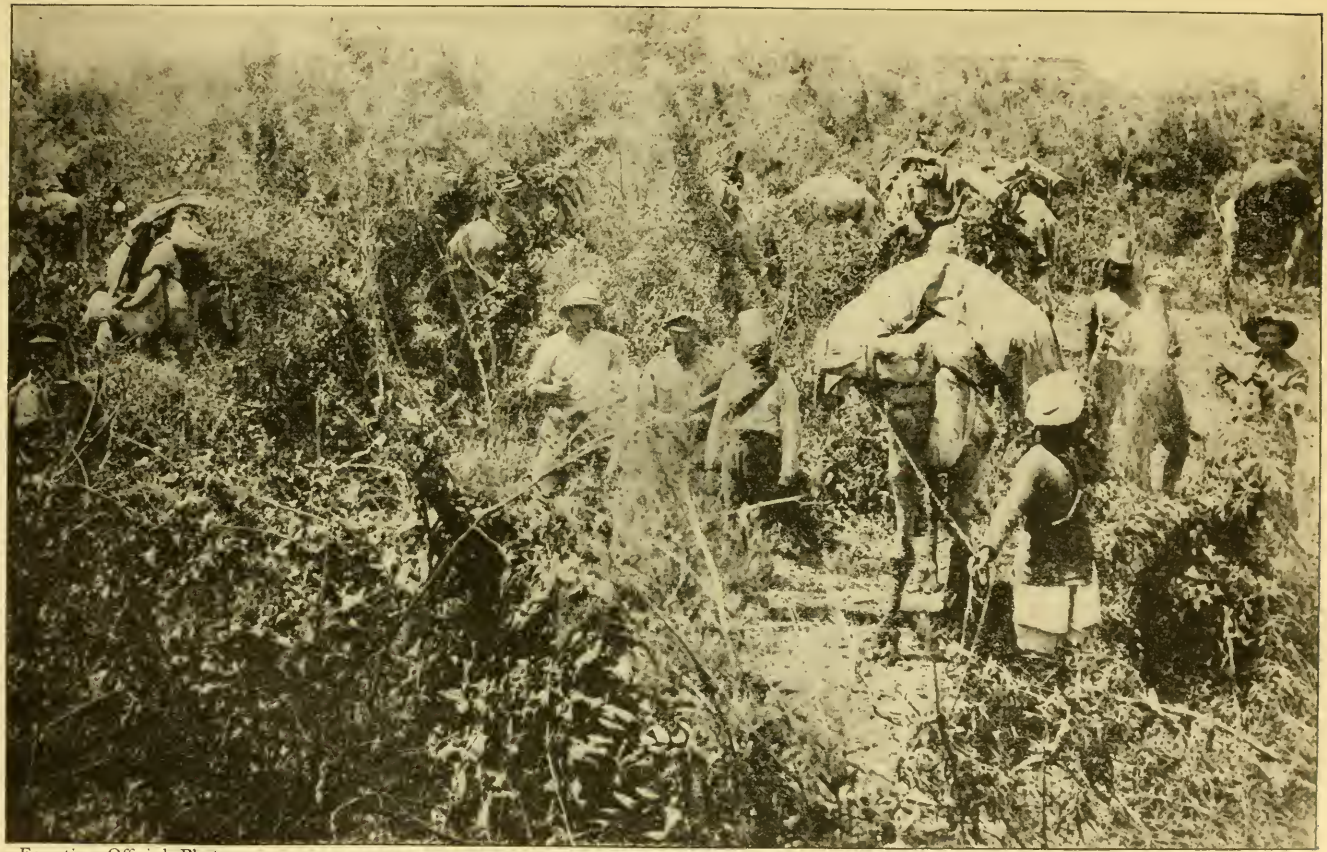
PHOTOGRAPHED WHILE IN ACTION—LOADING.

One of the largest and most effective guns used in the war. An idea of its immense size is gained in comparison with the men. It is moved about on a specially constructed railway.

Photo International Film Service Co., Inc.

THE FORTIFIED ROCK AT HELGOLAND.

The former German stronghold, often called "The Key to Germany." This fortification was held by the Allies as guarantee of armistice.



Egyptian Official Photo.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

BRITISH TROOPS AT THE RIVER JORDAN. "ONE MORE RIVER TO CROSS."

This photograph shows British troops, white and native, halting for a midday rest on the eastern bank of the River Jordan. The luxuriant growth is not uncommon in this country.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

FRENCH CAVALRY PATROL ALONG THE AISNE.
Mounted forces came into greater prominence during the latest developments of the war.

From the British point of view, a shift of plans was essential. The British Expeditionary Force had been sent over to help France at a very desperate pinch. It had done so. It had covered itself with undying glory in the Retreat from Mons to the Marne. Now, however, that the Aisne had become a deadlock, it would be a mistake of organization for the British Army to be so far south, since its supplies were coming from England. If any troops were to be shifted northwards, the British should go. Thus they would be shortening their line of supply, saving time, men and material.

Immediately, therefore, even while the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne was continuing, French troops began to replace the British in the trenches before the Aisne. It was not, however, until October 3, that the main body started, though small detachments had been steadily entraining for the north. When the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne came to a definite end, after September 26, it was clear that more men could be spared from this sector. The collapse of the Alsace-Lorraine campaign—which was a complete affair in itself and will be told in full in the next chapter—also released the troops which had been employed in the Vosges.

Objectives of French and German Troops.

But, while the French were seeking to turn von Kluck's western flank, the Germans were striving to force their way westward, not only to cover their line of communication, but, as has been said, to occupy and intrench themselves on as large a piece of invaded territory as possible. The Germans and the French each suffered from a disadvantage. The French weakness lay in the fact that, being on the outside of the curve, they had a longer distance to travel, and, moreover, the lines of supply were not extensions of existing plans, but new ones. The German weakness lay in the fact that they dared not shoot out great masses of troops to the northwestward, for, if they did so, these individual masses might be surrounded and cut off. They were therefore compelled to build their line northwestward, block by block, not adding an army corps until it had been solidly founded on the corps to the south of it. The Germans, then, were driving northwestward. The French were pushing northeastward. Being in constant contact, the net result was that the line established was half-way between the two aims. If the Germans did not gain Calais, neither did the French and British suc-

ceed in driving east far enough either to cut the main railroad nor to save Antwerp.

Leaving aside, for the moment, the actions which occurred in the formation of this north-making line, it is worth while, first, to consider the armies that made up the line itself. Beginning from the Aisne, northward, the first army to be encountered, naturally, would be that of Manoury, still intrenched in the quarries, but pivoting slowly so that the quarries became its right wing. The left wing, thus, would be trying to pinch in von Kluck's flank.

Line of Opposing Armies.

Immediately north, and following the Oise Valley to Peronne, was General Castenlau with the Second French Army, which had been brought round from Lorraine. It was a well-equipped, seasoned army. In reserve and partly behind him, but still to the north, was a small group of Territorial units under General Brugère. North of this was the main French Army of the West, a newly constituted group under General Maud'huy, occupying the line from Arras to La Bassée. From La Bassée to Ypres came the British Army, the Second Army Corps to the south, then the Third, with the First to the north. From Ypres to Dixmude was also a newly organized army, known as the French Army of Belgium, under General d'Urbal, which included a fine body of French marines under Admiral Ronarc'h. From Dixmude to the sea at Nieuport was the Belgian Army, which, after the fall of Antwerp, was strongly reënforced and became a magnificent line of defense. The German forces were greatly changed and altered at this time. Roughly, von Heeringen remained in charge of the Aisne defence, von Kluck faced Castelnau, von Bülow faced Maud'huy, the Crown Prince of Bavaria faced the southern part of the British Army (which included three French divisions under General Bidon) and the Duke of Wurtemburg faced the north of the British line, d'Urbal and the Belgians.

One fact strikes the eye at once in this line from the Aisne to the sea. It is the fact that all of Belgium except a tiny corner from Nieuport to Armentieres had come into the hands of the Germans. Yet, when von Kluck was compelled to swing south in the great attack at Mons-Charleroi, Tournai had been the westernmost point to which the Uhlans had swept. This needs explanation.

On August 9, 1914, General von Emmich, in occupation in Liége,

but desperate because the forts would not give in, appealed for the 42-centimeter siege guns. On October 9, 1914, two months later, Antwerp fell after a nine-day siege. The story of those two months is a black one. It is a record of atrocities unparalleled in the history of the world. The acts of the Germans in Belgium were ferocious, filthy and foul. No apologist can excuse, no reason can condone, no indemnity can palliate the enormity of the guilt of that long-continued glut of horror.

It began almost from the very first week of the invasion. German arrogance had not dreamed that Belgium would dare to resist. German vanity received a sore blow when Belgium not only resisted, but did so with such gallantry that the great German Army was held back for nine days by the forts of Liége. German vanity was still more seriously wounded when the Belgians proved conclusively that, man for man, they were far better soldiers than the Germans.

Surrender of Brussels.

When, at Fort Embourg, the Germans came up under a white flag of truce and then treacherously attacked (this, once disputed, has been definitely substantiated), the Belgians turned and drove them back. At Wandre, on the 11th, the Belgians routed a German force and sent it flying helter-skelter over the Dutch frontier. The successful charge of one Belgian squadron of cavalry against six squadrons of Prussian cavalry carried on Germany's shame. At Eghezée on August 13, at Landen on the 14th, at Waremme on the 15th, and at Diest on the 16th, all German attacks were beaten off.

The Belgian Army held the road to Brussels against odds of seven to one. On the 17th, the Queen and the ministers evacuated the capital; and on the 18th, the Belgian Army fell back on Brussels, first punishing the Germans at Aerschot with terrible severity, though at enormous loss to themselves. One heroic detachment of 288 Belgians had but seven survivors. On the 19th, the Belgian Army took up positions in the woods, but air scouts reported the size of the German Army under von Kluck, not far away to the south, to be in such force that it was thought wiser to surrender the capital than to have it bombarded.

On August 20, therefore, Brussels was entered by a parade march of 40,000 men, detached for the purpose from von Kluck's army, an unwearied, fresh force. No military show was ever finer. Preceded

by a scouting party of Uhlans, this army corps filed through Brussels, horse, foot, artillery and sappers, every unit complete. The infantry fell into the famous stiff-kneed "goose-step" as they passed through. Two Belgian officers, manacled and fastened to the leather stirrups of two Uhlans, was Germany's delicate way of suggesting conquest. But the civil authorities had been urgent that the townsfolk should not give the Germans the least pretext for reprisals, and no outbreak occurred.

Brussels was unharmed. The Germans contented themselves with fining the city $40,000,000, just as a fine of $10,000,000 had been put on Liége. London and Paris at once telegraphed to the Belgian Government a loan of $50,000,000, without interest.

Brutalities of the Germans.

Before passing on directly to the nature of the atrocities, a few dates and concise facts may be given, taken entirely from reports of official investigating commissions. At Orsmael and Neerhespen, August 10, 11 and 12, an era of cruelty was begun, on the latter date a man being hanged head downward and burned alive. At Herrsfelt, August 16, a peasant having protested to the Germans in the name of Christianity, was carried into his house, his wife and family forced to sit around the table, their hands being nailed to the table and their feet to the floor by large spikes. At Aerschot, August 19, the town was turned over to the soldiers to do as they pleased, and there followed a three days' pillage, 150 people being massacred and brutalities of every description being wreaked on women and girls of all ages. The same day, Diest, Tirlemont, Schaffen, Lummen and Loenstede were similarly treated. The atrocities and mutilations in the village of Corbeek-Loo, August 20, cannot be cited on a printed page; their parallel is only to be found among the Apache Indians, and the latter spared women and children, which the Germans did not. On August 25, in Hofstade, similar atrocities occurred. In Sempst, in imitation of Nero, the Germans poured petroleum on the clothes of innocent villagers and set them afire. The city of Termonde and thirty-seven villages were burned to the ground. On August 28, in Louvain, 7,000 persons, many of them women and children, were packed into a riding school, where, like the Black Hole of Calcutta, more than 1,000 were stifled to death during the night.

What was Germany's answer to the explosion of wrath which burst over the civilized world? On August 30, the German General Staff issued an official communication, dated from Berlin, which said, in part: "The barbarous attitude of the Belgian population in all parts has not only justified our severest measures, but forced them on us for the sake of self-preservation."

Nor should it be thought that German atrocities stopped with Belgium. The French official report on atrocities committed within the French border during August and September brought to light not hundreds but thousands of similar cases, though the savagery of mutilation was rarer than in Belgium. "It can be stated," said the report, "that never has a war carried on between civilized nations assumed the savage and ferocious character of the one which at this moment is being waged on our soil by an implacable adversary.

Terrible Destruction by the Huns.

"Pillage, rape, arson and murder are the common practices of our enemies, crimes against women and children have been of appalling frequency, and the facts which have been revealed to us day by day at once constitute definite crimes against common rights punished by the codes of every country with the most severe and the most dishonoring penalties, and which prove an astonishing degeneration in German habits of thought since 1870."

Through many generations Belgium has been noted as a hive of industry, and one of the richest countries in the world. The fields were tilled like gardens, and everywhere was a civilization rich, warm, compact and continuous. Everywhere were relics of the Flemish Renaissance, and in towns throughout the country was some of the finest brick and stone work of that period. Ancient church spires rose in all parts of this land of plenty, and in town and hamlet alike were masterpieces of Flemish tapestry and painting—the handiwork of Rubens, Vandyck, Bouts and Matsys.

Old and beautiful cities were looted by the Germans, and many masterpieces of the middle ages were destroyed, never to be replaced. Louvain was the chief university town of Belgium, one of the intellectual centres of Catholic Europe. Its university was one of the oldest in Europe, and contained in its library many famous manuscripts. On the evening of August 26, while the Belgians occupied Malines, there

'was a sudden outburst of rifle fire, and several Germans were hit. The Germans announced that it was a plot among the civilian populace, instigated by the Belgian government; the Belgians declared that a detachment of Germans, driven back from Malines, was fired upon in mistake by the German troops of occupation.

An order was at once given by a Major von Manteuffel, who was in command, for the destruction of the city. The soldiers followed instructions as systematically as they could. Small incendiary tablets and fagots soaked in paraffin were thrown through windows broken by the destroyers. Houses were looted, and what the demons of destruction could not carry away they destroyed and threw into the streets. Presently the city was a blazing inferno.

The university disappeared and with it the great library, the Halles with their noble arches became charred ruins, and only the walls of the great cathedral of St. Peter remained. Some of the noblest houses in the land became charred ruins, the town hall alone being saved. The salvation of this building is one of the mysteries of the destruction of the city. It, apparently, was to be destroyed along with the other historic buildings; when suddenly the German troops turned in and used almost superhuman efforts to save the historic building.

Louvain Sacked and Destroyed.

The destruction of Louvain was an act of vandalism surpassing anything which has come down to us from the history of the great fighting nations. Nothing the German people can ever do will make amends for the burning and sacking of this treasure city which neither time nor money can restore.

The German soldiers went about their task of dynamiting the fair city deliberately and with malice aforethought. Nothing was spared, and the destruction of human beings was consummated with as little thought for the crime committed as would have prevailed if the whole thing had been but the make-believe destruction of a moving picture city and its make-believe inhabitants. The destroyers moved steadily from house to house and from institution to institution, with the fire brand ever active and efficient. After houses had been sacked the things that remained were put in stacks and burned.

The sacking of Louvain marked the beginning of a period of de-

struction of the peaceful cities of Belgium. Nothing but blood and lust was apparent in the thirst of the Germans for revenge. They killed everywhere, and thievery and destruction were as the bread of life to them.

Learning that it would be impossible to hold the ancient city of Malines the Belgian troops had quietly left it, a few days after having captured it from the Germans. On the day following the destruction of Louvain the Huns, still drunk with wine and blood lust, suddenly began bombarding Malines. The roof and walls of the ancient cathedral of St. Rombaut, which dated from the thirteenth century, were riddled with shells, and the civilian populace fled in a panic.

The firing ceased, but a few days later it was taken up with renewed energy, the cathedral being completely destroyed, the bells which had rung out their sweet music for five centuries going down to destruction with the tower. Near the end of September when the scared inhabitants began to creep back to the city, there was a third bombardment, which resulted in a fire which raged furiously for days, completely ravaging the city.

Outrages by the Germans.

The city of Termonde, another historic place with treasures in stone and lime, was also deliberately destroyed because the fines levied by the Germans were not instantly forthcoming. Hundreds of little towns were laid waste, the Germans managing the work of destruction in a most thorough and scientific manner. Soldiers wheeled tanks of paraffin up and down the streets, and the houses and places of historic value were sprayed with the liquid. Then the torch was applied, and the treasures of ages were wantonly destroyed.

The work was ruthless and unnecessary. It was not for the advancement of military strategy that Belgium was laid waste. If the treasure buildings of a nation be in the way of a military movement, then those treasure buildings must go. But in the case of Belgium but little destruction was the result of necessity. Louvain was laid waste at the leisure of the invaders, the destruction being carried on while the German army was the army of occupation. Malines and Termonde were bombarded merely as an outlet of blood lust, and because the Germans wished to teach the inhabitants that Germany must be obeyed. There was no defence by the inhabitants.

Robbery, scientific and malignant, was one of the main objects in the destruction of the cities of Belgium. Louvain was plundered down to the last piece and farthing. An American writing of the destruction of Aerschot said: "Quite two-thirds of the houses had been burned and showed unmistakable signs of having been sacked by the maddened soldiery previously. Everywhere was the ghastly evidence. Doors had been smashed; windows had been broken; furniture and pictures were wantonly destroyed; mattresses had been ripped open with bayonets in a hunt for treasure; outer walls of houses were spattered with blood and pock-marked with bullets; the sidewalks were slippery with broken wine bottles; the streets were strewn with women's clothing."

Modern warfare does not permit of looting, much less does it permit of the making of warfare on civilians. The fact remains that civilian non-combatants were outraged by the invaders, and many were the cold-blooded murders done in the name of warfare which could no more be classed in that category than could the assassination of a ruler be called self-defence.

Unmentionable Crimes by Drunken Soldiers.

There were numerous alleged cases of murders of old people, and unarmed citizens were bayoneted and slain, sometimes on the charge of having firearms in their possession, sometimes purely as an exemplary measure. There were many crimes against women and girls, and the drink-maddened soldiers even went so far as to use the women and girls as shields as they invaded the cities. Many stories of horrible scenes and of mutilation cannot be recounted.

It has been definitely established that there were many sexual outrages, although a protest was lodged against this charge by the Germans. But the indictment of Germany and of Prussianism was complete. The findings of the Hague Convention as to the conduct of war and the rights of civilians were simply ignored.

However Germany might deny, these things were definitely proved by the testimony secured by a special commission appointed by King Albert, the findings of which were laid before President Wilson by a Commission consisting of Henry Carton de Wiart, Minister of Justice; Messrs. de Sadeleer, Hymans and Vandervelde, Ministers of State, together with Count Louis de Lichtervelde, serving as secretary of

the mission. Merely by way of illustration this incident of the report is given:

"Near the village of Corbeck-Loo, on Thursday, August 20, German soldiers were searching a house where a young girl of 16 lived with her parents. They carried her into an abandoned house and, while some of them kept the father and mother off, others went into the house, the cellar of which was open, and forced the young woman to drink. Afterwards they carried her out on the lawn in front of the house and violated her successively. She continued to resist and they pierced her breast with bayonets. Having been abandoned by the soldiers after their abominable attacks, the girl was carried off by her parents, and the following day, owing to the gravity of her condition, she was administered the last rites of the church by the priest of the parish and carried to the hospital at Louvain."

The German Time-Table Disarranged.

Drink was undoubtedly one of the leading causes for the devastation of the land through which the Germans tramped. The soldiery swilled heavy red wine with the same freedom that they drank light beer and light Rhine wines, and the results were disastrous. There was a reign of sheer murder, and the vandalisms of the seventeenth century were equalled, if not exceeded, by the sacking of Belgium.

It will be remembered that the German general plan had been, at the first, to sweep through Liége unopposed, clear out Brussels and Antwerp in a few days, reach the sea and then strike south. The forces under General von Emmich were scheduled to move forward with the mathematical precision of a time-table.

This time-table idea was at once the strength and the weakness of the German plan. As long as it operates, its scientific exactitude is the most perfect military ideal conceivable. But, on the other hand, the more exact and rigid is it, the more does it cause confusion when disarranged. Therein lies one of the great difference between the French and German handling of armies. The French is much less perfectly ordered and therefore essentially weaker in actual operation, but it is vastly more flexible and therefore essentially stronger when the changing conditions of war bring about a reorganization. It is the difference between an iron bar and a piece of wire. The bar cannot

be bent to a new shape until it is heated and hammered into that shape. The wire can easily be made to conform to any shape.

Liége disarranged the German time-table. Von Emmich could not sweep to the westward, and much of von Kluck's armies could not pass over the railways held by the unbeaten Liége forts. The whole plan for the invasion of Belgium, therefore, had to go by the board, so that von Kluck might hurry down to Mons and get there in time to meet von Bülow. It was for this reason that only a small force was detached to make the parade march through Brussels.

The moment that the defeat of the Marne was known in Germany, however, the General Staff realized that the main troops engaged in the drive would have all they could do to hold themselves on the Aisne. It was, therefore, in the highest degree dangerous to leave an undefeated Belgian Army at Antwerp, the more so as there was a strong possibility that England would soon get reënforcements from overseas, first, volunteers, or Territorials, next the regulars and the native regiments from India, and, later, the Colonies. The rally for the Empire shown in India and the British colonies had killed the German hope that England would find herself alone. A counter-attack by a Belgian-British force at Liége would cut the German railroad of supply. Action was imperative.

The German Advance on Antwerp.

Marshal von der Goltz was at once appointed Governor-General of Belgium and reserve corps were sent forward, under General von Besseler, who had been in command of the parade troops at Brussels. Definite figures as to the number of army corps actually in Belgium at this time are unobtainable, nor would they be of much service, for large numbers of men were employed in transport, in garrison duty, in reorganizing the Belgian towns and cities under German rule and in the general multifarious duties incident on the occupation of an enemy's country. Von Besseler, however, does not seem to have had a very large army at the first, probably not more than 125,000 troops of the line. He had, however, the siege train which had been deflected from the advance to Namur, including two of the 42-centimeter siege guns.

The German advance on Antwerp was slow and measured, singularly unlike the German drive on Paris. There were two reasons for

this. The first was that it was not a drive, but an onward march of occupation. The second was, that there was no need for haste. Antwerp was first approached from the southwest, Audeghem fell on September 26, the same day as the German defeat near Rheims. Thus the end of the western phase of the Aisne and the beginning of the advance on Antwerp came on the same day.

It is a mistake to present the Germans as idling through Belgium during September. They were not. They were devoting their whole force to sustain the armies driving on Paris. The moment that aim was deadlocked, they turned their attention to Belgium.

On September 27 the little village of Lebbekke was attacked by a small force of Germans, which was repulsed. Instead of attacking with a heavier force a second time, the Germans withdrew and the western roads out of Antwerp were left free. There is no doubt that von Besseler could have invested Antwerp if he had wished. That he did not do so seems to have been a part of Marshal von der Goltz' plan. The Field Marshal did not want to destroy Antwerp, he wanted to occupy it, and to increase its importance as a strategic point. Destruction of the city, therefore, would vitiate his plans. He wanted to drive the Belgians out, not to slaughter them in the streets. For this reason the northern outlet by river and the western roads were left clear. Malines was bombarded that day.

Forts of Antwerp Attacked.

On September 28 Malines was again bombarded and the first general attack on the forts of Antwerp began. Antwerp was regarded as the most strongly fortified city in the world, with the possible exception of Paris, and, besides, it is peculiarly situated for defense. Two rivers, the Rupel and Nethe, swing round the city to the south. A circle of nineteen forts protected this line. A circle of eight inner forts supported them. On September 28, 29, 30 and October 1 von Besseler was held back by the River Nethe, partly owing to the difficulty of using his heavy guns owing to the low and muddy nature of the land, which made the building of concrete foundations difficult, and partly because von der Goltz was anxious not to inaugurate a reign of destruction. It would have injured his further plan.

On October 3, the first detachment of British troops, numbering about 8,000 marines, arrived in Antwerp. They brought two large

naval guns, which were mounted on armored trains. The fighting became desperate, but it was marked that though the 42-centimeter guns were directed once or twice against outlying forts, their use was sparing and was not turned against the city itself. This rendered the fighting hand-to-hand and more furious. All that day, all night and until noon of October 4 the Germans fought to put a pontoon bridge across the Nethe River at Waelhem. They succeeded at last, and the fight passed on to Lierre, where it continued savagely. This was mainly a light artillery and infantry battle.

Meantime, German aviators had been flying above Antwerp, dropping circulars which advised the Belgians to evacuate the city. Other proclamations were warnings to the British marines to retire and leave the city to "peaceful occupation." On October 6 the Germans crossed in force and on October 7 the evacuation of the city began. It was a terrible exodus, a fearful flight. The condition of the refugees was pitiable in the extreme. Many fled to Holland, which could not organize relief for the tens of thousands which streamed over the border, lacking food and many of the essentials of life. The suburbs of Antwerp were destroyed, but this was done mainly by the Belgians themselves in clearing away ranges for their defensive guns.

Surrender of Antwerp.

On October 8 and October 9 the inner forts took up the cannonade, over the ruins of the suburbs. Some of them, notably Forts Three, Four and Five, were wrecked by the return fire. The people continued to flee, a few on railroads, more on tugs plying up the river to Holland, but by far the greater number on foot. About 200,000 people left Antwerp in these two days.

By the morning of October 10 Antwerp was on fire. The oil tanks had been struck with shells and were blazing fiercely. The water supply had been cut off by the destruction of the main reservoir. At noon, on October 10, Antwerp surrendered. Without loss of time, the Germans were set at work putting out the fire and restoring order in the streets. On October 11 Marshal von der Goltz arrived from Brussels and found that his orders had been carried out. Antwerp had been taken after a fourteen-day siege and not more damage had been done than could be helped. As in Brussels, so in Antwerp, von der

Goltz established an efficient well-ordered German rule at once. Within a week, the shops were open, the street cars were running, the bridges were temporarily repaired and life was in safety though under the iron heel of a severe martial supervision.

A considerable part of the Belgian forces together with a brigade of British marines was cut off by the Germans and compelled to retreat across the Holland frontier, where they were promptly disarmed and interned. The larger part, however, struck out westward. With Antwerp occupied, the Germans rushed up from the south. Some of the Belgian troops were cut off at Ghent, which the Germans entered on October 13. Others were compelled to flee along the coast when the Germans approached Ostend later on the same day. By October 14 von Besseler's army was divided into at least three parts, if not four, for Bruges, Thielt, Daume and Esschen were all seized on that day. When the Belgian and British troops were taken away from Ostend on October 15, that seaport, also, fell into German hands. The cavalry swarmed everywhere, and, as has been shown, the policy of "frightfulness" was established to keep the Belgians in terror of any action against these small bodies of cavalry. By October 20 the Belgian-British line had been solidified from Nieuport to Ypres, and the rest of the line continued south as has been shown earlier in this chapter.

Series of Vicious Engagements.

This line, however, had not been attained without a number of very sharp actions, some of them large enough to be dignified with the name of battles. It would give them a disproportionate importance to relate them in detail, but a brief summary will show what was happening between the Aisne and the sea during the time that Belgium was being overrun and Antwerp was being captured.

On September 23, Manoury's force tried to break in behind von Kluck to seize the railway junction at Tergnier. The blow failed, though it gave rise to a violent action at Tracy-le-Mont. On September 26 the Germans retreated from Amiens and the first train from Paris arrived. Amiens was again in French hands. Then followed a series of most vicious engagements wherein the towns of Peronne and Albert were repeatedly taken and lost. This continued on until the first days of October.

In turn, Arras became the center of warfare, and when war burst on that city, it was in its most dreadful form. On October 1 the French were driven out of Douai. On October 6 Arras was subjected to a heavy bombardment, many fine old buildings being destroyed. That same day, attacks having been begun on Lille, the engagement centered at La Bassée. On the 9th a party of Uhlans entered Lille, fighting began in the streets and bombardment began. But October 12 Lille, the capital of French Flanders, was in ruins, and the town surrendered on the 13th. Its resistance, which had lasted a week, however, enabled the Allies to consolidate their line just behind it. The British had thrown forward a force on the Lys to protect Ypres, but the main line was at the latter point.

On October 15, 1914, therefore, the line, Nieuport-Dixmude-Ypres-Armentieres-La Bassée-Lens-Arras-Albert-Roye-Lassigny-Noyon and thence along the Aisne, was firmly established. From Ypres to the Craonne Plateau, or rather to Verdun, was the huge swinging iron chain, which was to swing to and fro for the next four years. The granite wall of Verdun-Rheims has been spoken of, there remains to show the solidity of the Nieuport to Ypres support.

Foch in Command of Armies North of the Aisne.

When the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne had come to a close, that is, when the Aisne situation had definitely settled into a deadlock, at the end of September, Joffre made Foch the generalissimo of the French armies running north from the Aisne. It was his task to co-ordinate the activities of the armies of Castelnau, Brugère, Maud'huy, the division under Bidon, and the northern army under d'Urbal. He took up his headquarters at Doulens on October 3, and on October 8 Sir John French arrived there to prepare a joint plan. That plan revealed itself as a defensive, not an offensive, movement, and its salient points developed in the four battles of the Yser, of Lys-Ypres, of La Bassée and of Arras. A short notice of each of these will close the record of the establishment of the "western front."

The lands about the Yser Canal, especially those running northward from Dixmude to the sea, resemble Holland. They are below sea level and protected by dykes. Dixmude was the angle of this battle. On October 16 the 6,000 French marines under Admiral Ro-

narc'h and 5,000 Belgians under General Meyser were ordered to hold the trenches for four days. The gallant sailors and soldiers held it for a fortnight, most of the time in trenches flooded with water, all the time in mist and pouring rain.

On October 17 five Belgian batteries arrived north of Dixmude. Acting in co-operation with regiments of mounted Morocco troops and some of General d'Urbal's cavalry, a forward movement was made. On the 18th the Ostend road was taken, but it could not be held. On midnight of the 19th, the Allies were back in the trenches on the west side of the canal. All was readiness, on the German side, for a tremendous drive in the morning.

That day, however, in response to an urgent message sent on the 16th, there appeared off Nieuport several shallow-draught monitors, carrying long-range naval guns. (The story of these "tanks" of the sea will be told in later chapters dealing with naval operations.) The villages in which the Germans had taken up quarters for the night were suddenly shelled with a terrific fire, the shots seeming to come by infernal magic from out of the fog-covered sea.

The Germans Harassed.

When morning broke, the Germans were in an excessively awkward position. If they intrenched to face the sea, they could be enfiladed by fire from the Allied trenches on the canal, which ran at right angles to the ocean; if they intrenched against the army, the naval guns enfiladed or shot lengthwise along them. Naval balloons and hydroplanes directed the fire from the monitors. Moreover, the ships themselves were free from attack, for the Germans had no such artillery as could meet the range of a naval gun. The fire was exceedingly heavy. One monitor, alone, fired a thousand high-explosive and shrapnel shells in a day, absolutely blotting out all possibe German infantry action for a space of three miles inland from the shore.

That confined the German attack—and accordingly strengthened the Allied defence—to a four-mile front, between Ramscapelle and Dixmude. On October 24 the invaders forced their way across the canal at heavy loss. Then the lock gates were opened, the waters entered and drowned the invading Germans in hundreds. The fighting still went on, the trenches now obliterated, a wierd sort of a combat in a shallow lake, sometimes knee-deep, sometimes waist-deep in water.

This was a fight of cold steel, wherefor the Germans showed little taste. By October 30 Ramscapelle was recovered; on November 3 the old trenches were retaken. The lock gates were closed and the country slowly drained clear. Then came the winter, with the Yser canal holding firm.

The second of the battles which was coincident with the formation of the western front was that of Lys-Ypres. It began with an ambitious program, nothing less than the recapture of Bruges and Ghent. Sir John French believed that only a small force of Germans lay in the direction of Roulers, northeast of Ypres. On October 16 the British Army, which had consisted of two corps during the retreat from Mons, and of three corps on the Aisne, was increased by the addition of a fourth corps under command of General Byng. On October 17, four French cavalry divisions were added to Byng's somewhat incomplete corps and on the 18th the army advanced, almost to the Passchendaele Ridge, five miles west of Ypres. On the 19th the First Army Corps moved to Ypres. On the 20th air scouts brought back news of huge German armies moving upon Byng.

General Byng's Desperate Position.

The lightning-like concentration of these armies under von Deimling and von Fabeck was masterly work on the part of the German staff. They struck on the 21st and struck hard. The cavalry was forced back at once. Byng, very stubbornly, got into trenches on a line running roughly from Langemarck to Zillebekke and thence to Hollebekke. The whole plans of the British Army at this point had miscarried.

Yet there was reason for Sir John French's supposition that the Germans would be few in numbers towards the northeast. He had already sent Smith-Dorrien to the southeast and on the 17th—the day that the Byng forward movement was ordered—Haig reported further advance toward Lys impossible. He intrenched solidly in order to hold Armentieres and one of the most intense periods of fighting occurred at Croix Marechale and Neuve Eglise. For sixteen days the attacks never slackened. They dug in for the winter under a most terrific fire.

Byng, however, was in a most desperate position. An order, taken from a German officer prisoner, stated that General von Deimling, with

three full army corps and reserves, was entrusted with the task of breaking through the line north of Ypres, and that "the Emperor himself considered the success of this attack to be one of vital importance to the issue of the war." The Germans did their best to make it so.

This decisive action, sometimes called the First Battle of Ypres, came to a head on October 31. There were three British divisions against three Teuton army corps, and at the point of attack, the Germans came on at odds of about six to one. By noon, the British First Division was broken, and the Royal Scots Fusiliers were surrounded and taken. Early in the afternoon, the British divisional headquarters was struck by a shell and six of the staff officers were killed outright. Two brigades were crumpled up, one on the right and the other on the left of the Seventh Division and for ten minutes there seemed no hope of recovery. Then, most amazingly, the capture of the small village of Gheluvelt by the Second Warwickshires, at the point of the bayonet, formed a tiny point of rallying. The line held for another hour and liberated a cavalry brigade which sacrified itself to make good the trenches for half an hour longer. As evening drew on, a powerful force of French cavalry came up. Though almost exhausted, they helped hold the line, dismounted, until dark. Four of the regiments which received their first baptism of fire on this terrible day were volunteers.

Gallantry of British Soldiers.

"No more arduous task," said Sir John French in his report, "has ever been assigned to British soldiers, and in all their splendid history there is no instance of their having answered so magnificently to the desperate calls which of necessity were made upon them. Words fail me to express the admiration I feel for their conduct, or my sense of the incalculable services they rendered."

Their services that day, indeed, were incalculable. They had saved Belgium from becoming a German province and they had kept Germany from Calais, the sea, and a possible invasion of England. In revenge, the Germans bombarded Ypres at long range, destroying the famous architectural marvel, the Cloth Hall, a confession of failure of much the same character as their bombardment of Rheims Cathedral when they were thrown back at that point by Foch.

The third of these battles was that of La Bassée. Though important in itself, it had far less tensity as a matter of strategy than the two northern battles of the Yser and Ypres. For, even if the Germans pierced the line at La Bassée, it would gain them little. They would not dare make too deep a salient with powerful armies to the north and south. It was far more a trench battle.

The main attack at La Bassée began on October 22, the day after the beginning of the First Battle of Ypres. The point was held by the British, with a heavy addition of Indian troops. These latter fought absolutely like demons, in spite of the new and unnatural method of warfare. The British were driven back. On October 24, the Gordon Highlanders, a famous fighting regiment, were driven out of their trenches. The Germans succeeded in seizing Neuve Chappelle on October 27. The whole line was greatly confused at this time, some units of either side being intrenched in the lines of their opponents. There was little plan to this battle, it was fought out by regiments, even by companies. By October 29 the Allied troops were forced back to the La Bassée gate. For three days and nights the Germans attacked and attacked again. They could not budge the lines another inch. There Smith-Dorrien dug in for the winter.

The Arras battle was similar. The main attack began on October 20 and lasted for six days. Von Bülow, with heavy forces and a powerful concentration of artillery, pushed Maud'huy back, fighting for every inch of ground, until he was within gun-fire of Arras. In this desperate need, Joffre hurried forward some reserves which had been held at Albert and relieved Maud'huy just in time to save the northern gate of Arras. Maud'huy dug in for the winter, likewise.

Thus was formed the line of the western front. The actions and engagements of the next five months were not the clash of armies, but the sorties of small groups of men. There were no great gains, no great losses. Shiftings of the front were measured in yards, not in miles. The capture or loss of a trench—which had absolutely no effect on the front as a whole—assumed the importance of a battle. Rifle and bayonet were laid aside for pickaxe and spade.

CHAPTER VI.

THE FRENCH OFFENSIVE IN ALSACE-LORRAINE.

Both Sides Essay a Ruse at Mulhausen—The Bath of Blood at Altkirch—Strategical Value of the Vosges—Invading French Army Defeated at Metz—Guerrilla Fighting—Failure of Campaign as Conquest, Success as Buffer Against Attack Toward Belfort.

NOW that the somewhat breathless recital has been made of the German invasion of Belgium, the smashing of the first line at Mons-Charleroi, the Battle of the Marne, the intrenchment of the Aisne and the establishment of the western front, it is possible to turn to another part of that first great moment of the opening of the world war. All that has been recounted heretofore is part and parcel of the same plan—the German drive on Paris. But, though the Kaiser went so far as to reserve a certain date and a certain hotel for his triumphal banquet, he never got there.

Beginning also from the first day of the war there was a French drive. It was directed at the Rhine Valley and had for its chief purpose the occupation of Alsace-Lorraine, two provinces which had been taken from France by Germany as an indemnity after the war of 1871. It was a double drive, a northern attack into Lorraine, and southern attack into Alsace.

In a preceding chapter it was stated that there are four gaps in the mountainous and hilly country of the Belgium-Luxemburg-France frontier. Those at Liége and Longwy were used by the Germans in their drive on Paris. The two lower gaps, respectively at the north and south ends of the Vosges mountains, were used by the French in their drive into Alsace-Lorraine. It must be remembered that the chain of the Vosges mountains, while itself a strong defensive line for France in the event of German attack, was likewise a strong defensive line for Germany in the event of French attack. And, while the French frontier was protected by the fortresses of Verdun, Toul, Epinal and Belfort, the German frontier was protected by the fortresses of Dieden-

hofen, Metz, Strassburg and Neu Breisach. To these must be added groups of forts at Molsheim, Banzenheim and Basel. Behind these, and guarding the Rhine, were Germersheim, Mainz, Coblentz and Cologne. (All of these were occupied by the Allies after the close of the war, as part of the conditions of armistice.)

In order that the reader may understand the campaign more clearly, the movements of the armies will be traced in two parts, as they operated through each of these gaps. The southern or Alsace campaign will be taken first, the Lorraine campaign, second. But, before actually dealing with operations, it may be well to give the armies aligned on the two frontiers, as they developed in the course of the first three weeks.

The Opposing Forces on the Alsace-Lorraine Frontier.

The southernmost was the First French Army, under General Dubail, who was relieved of his command a few days after the war began and replaced by General Pau; it held the line from Belfort to Epinal. Then came the Second French Army, under General de Castelnau, holding the line as far north as Nancy; this was the army which, after the Battle of the Aisne, took up its place above Manoury and fought the Lassigny-Roye battles on the western front. North, again, from Toul to Longwy, came the Third French Army under General Ruffey (later under General Sarrail); this moved north later and helped cover Verdun. North of Longwy came the Fourth French Army, under Langle de Cary, who held the eastern side of the operative corner on the Mons-Charleroi battle, and who, at the Battle of the Marne, held firm the line between Verdun and Foch's army.

Opposing the forces were first the German Eighth Army, under General von Deimling, who, after the Alsace-Lorraine campaign was over, entrained and made the entire circuit of the western front, arriving to attack at Ypres a month later; this army faced the Gap of Belfort, resting on the forts at Basel on the Swiss frontier with its other end on the fortress of Neu Breisach. From Colmar to Saarburg, with Strassburg at its back, came the Seventh German Army, which army, as the reader will remember, after the Battle of the Marne was hurried round to the Aisne to support the diminished armies of von Kluck and von Bülow; this was under the command of General von Heeringen. From Saarburg to Metz came the Sixth German Army,

under the Crown Prince of Bavaria; and, facing the Longwy gap, was the Fourth Army under the German Crown Prince.

In spite of the attack on Liége, France could not believe that Germany intended to throw the main force of her armies through the neutral territories of Belgium and Luxemburg. Therefore, as an offensive defense—as well as an offense itself—she struck forward into Alsace-Lorraine. It is probable, also, that Joffre felt it to be a necessary response to French public sentiment. On Wednesday, August 5, the day after the declaration of war, French troops crossed the German frontier. On August 7 a French brigade with cavalry and artillery occupied Altkirch, and on August 8, after a sharp but short fight with retiring German troops, entered Mülhausen in the evening. It was a patriotic and political success of the first water, but it was entirely unsound from a military point of view.

Advance and Retreat of the French.

In the first place, it was too easy. That, in itself, is often a suspicious circumstances in warfare. In the second place, strategically, Mülhausen meant nothing. Neu Breisach lay fifteen miles to the north, with guns which completely controlled the valley of the River Ill (a tributary of the Rhine) over to Colmar and the slope of the Vosges; Basel lay to the southeast ten miles with a strong garrison, and there was a fortified point at Banzenheim, six miles to the east. The capture of Neu Breisach would have been a cause for rejoicing, Mülhausen, much less so. Moreover, in the excitement of the greeting which the Alsatians gave the French troops, the latter forgot that they were in an enemy's country.

The Germans did not forget. They had only retired sufficiently to "feel" the enemy, and air scouts had reported that the force of the advancing army was but small. All night von Deimling brought up and manoeuvred his forces. By the morning of August 9 he was ready. He attacked with a whole army corps from Neu Breisach; he sent two divisions simultaneously from the Forest of Hard, to which point they had been marched during the night; and he started, also at daybreak, a flank attack on the French from Sennheim. There was nothing to do but to retreat and to do it quickly. The French fell back after the first sharp encounter and intrenched lightly at Altkirch, only a few miles beyond the border.

It is to this day an unexplained mystery why Dubail sent forward into Mülhausen a mere 20,000 men. He had a large army, 200,000 men, if garrison troops be included, for France, in mobilizing, had concentrated her forces on the German frontier. The other part of his advance, the seizure of the Vosges heights, was better managed and by the 14th all the passes had been secured. The advance in the plain, however, was sternly disapproved by the French High Command, and General Pau, who had been a second choice for the Supreme Command, took charge of the First Army.

The Failure of General Pau.

Pau handled his advance with entirely different tactics. Instead of advancing with a small force on a wide front, he attacked slowly and simultaneously from the Vosges and from Belfort, storming Thann, St. Blaise (where von Deimling was wounded) and Dannemarie, taking Mülhausen on August 20. Here General Pau adopted a strong position on the Mülhausen-Sennheim-Thann-Col de Busang line and awaited attack. That night he received news of the disaster in Lorraine, and realizing that he could do nothing unsupported and only stood the risk of losing a large part of his army by an overpowering force, he retreated to Altkirch, solidifying the tiny Col de Busang-Thann corner so solidly, however, that it remained in French hands until the end of the war.

There was a terrific outcry in France concerning the abandonment of the Alsace campaign, and, had the military leaders in command been of less fame than Generals Joffre and Pau, it is more than probable that popular sentiment would have demanded some beheading in official ranks. But, by this time, the menace in the north was beginning to shape. Air scouts had reported the great concentration of the German armies on Namur, and the withdrawal of Pau's army from the Alsace campaign released more men for the north.

The failure of Pau to gain a permanent footing in the Rhine Valley, it has been shown, was the news of a defeat in Lorraine, which would leave him unsupported. It was, of course, absolutely essential to any campaign in the south that the First and Second French Armies should unite on the further side of the Vosges. Why did this prove impossible? What had happened in Lorraine?

The Second French Army, under General Castelnau, had proceeded

with far more caution than the unhappy leader of the first campaign into Alsace. The Germans had been advancing on Longwy and Verdun, but not in great force. General Castelnau had thrown back several enemy attacks on Nancy. All these actions were of that type of military operation which is known as "feeling out the enemy." In other words, they were not battles, but only feints to draw out information as to the strength of the foe. How little this was understood in Paris was shown by an official announcement on August 15 that the Germans had been thrown back at Nancy, that the invasion of Belgium had been foiled and so forth.

This simply demonstrated that the Germans were so cleverly enveloping their advance in secrecy that, as late as August 15, France did not yet know where the chief danger lay. Lest this should seem strange, in view of all that has been said about the Belgian invasion, it is to be remembered that cavalry patrols, acting as a screen in advance of the main armies, invariably cut telegraph and telephone communication. The world knew absolutely nothing as to the size, movement and plans of the German armies until several weeks later.

French Successes in Lorraine.

When, therefore, on August 15, General Castelnau advanced into Lorraine with the Second French Army, he had no reason to doubt the essential correctness of Joffre's strategy, for the Alsace-Lorraine invasion was an important part of the whole French plan. On Sunday, August 16, the French were in force at Avricourt, just across the German frontier on the main line from Luneville to Strassburg, which runs through Saarburg. On the same day the left wing of the First French Army, coming down from the Vosges passes, reached Schirmeck, on the Saales-Strassburg line (a German strategic railway) and captured 20 guns and 1,500 prisoners. The left wing of the Second Army had seized Fenetrange, a marshy region, but important as the railway junction from which diverged the Strassburg railway to Metz and Nancy respectively.

It is worthy of notice that these tactics were excellently handled by Castelnau, for on Monday, August 17, Saarburg was menaced from north, west and south simultaneously. Near Lorquin, directly south of the important supply point of Saarburg, on the River Saar, a strong artillery position had been taken up. That is, the position

was strong, though, as afterwards proved, the French heavy artillery was as weak compared to the German as its light artillery was strong.

On Tuesday, August 18, Saarburg was taken, with a sharp but not a heavy battle, and the main railway between Strassburg and Metz was broken. From a military point of view this was highly important, for Strassburg was the main supply of the advanced fortress of Metz. News was now beginning to filter through of the heavy German concentration in the north, and this news justified Castelnau in the supposition that a swift blow at the Rhine would cause a diversion of the German drive on Paris. It would, at least, he supposed, force the Germans to weaken their main push by the necessity of sending reënforcements to the Rhine. On August 19, therefore, he pushed forward through Dieuze and Morhange.

The Germans Retaliate.

It stands to reason that, had the Germans wished to do so, they could have thrown strong forces across the line between Metz and Strassburg and held back the French advance on the very first day. That they did not do so, was evidently due to one of two causes, either that the armies available were not strong enough for the purpose; or that the French were being decoyed into a salient on which an attack would fall with greater force. The latter proved to be true.

On Thursday, August 20, with absolute co-ordination, three German armies launched themselves on this horseshoe-shaped French advance. The first struck south of Saarburg, the second at Dieuze, the third, the heaviest, at Pont-a-Mousson. Von Heeringen led the southern attack, the Crown Prince of Bavaria the central, and the Metz garrison the northern. The latter, also, had a powerful quota of heavy artillery, as would be natural in garrison forces. Besides this, the Germans had the advantage of position.

The Battle of Metz, as it was called, was appallingly short. Von Heeringen's strategy, the artillery of Metz, and the overpowering forces that poured down from every direction like a gray tidal wave, formed an irresistible tempest of battle. The Seventh German Army swung in toward the slopes of the Vosges and formed an anvil on which the hammer of the Metz garrison fell and fell again. Compared with the immensely lengthy actions of the latter part of the war, Metz

could not be compared for size. It was, indeed, a battle of the old sort, when armies fought for themselves on their own ground.

But, though it was short and local, it was none the less decisive. The Pont-a-Mousson line was pounded to pieces in two hours. Less than an hour later the Bavarians tore through the French line at Chateau Salins. The Fifteenth French Division gave way; the Germans claimed that it fled. Ten batteries and 9,000 men were taken prisoners.

Castelnau was utterly taken aback at the strength of the troops opposing him, but he covered the hole made by the Fifteenth Division (which gallantly recovered itself next day) and drew to the rear. On the 21st the whole French left retreated to the frontier. On the 22nd it had been driven back to the strong position on the ring of hills near Nancy, known as the Grand Couronne, which figured a few days later in the Battle of the Marne. On the 22nd also the centre of the Alsace-Lorraine campaign, that is to say, the troops which had stormed the plain from over the passes of the Vosges, was compelled to withdraw, and Mülhausen was abandoned two days later. On the 23rd Lunéville, well over the French border, was taken by the Germans, and Nancy itself was only saved by the French taking up the main defense line between the fortresses of Verdun, Toul and Epinal.

General Joffre's Evacuation Order.

Undoubtedly there would have been a counter-thrust, but for the woeful news which came from the north. That same Saturday, August 22, when the two French Armies were driven back across the frontier, and the Alsace-Lorraine offensive was defeated, came the staggering news that the great fortress of Namur, intended to hold out for a week or two, had fallen in an hour. That evening, as Castelnau was taking up his position on Le Grand Couronne of Nancy, came the news of the French defeat at Charleroi and the collapse of the main operative corner. On Sunday, August 23, on the day that Lunéville fell, came the news of the isolation of the British and the heroic defence at Mons, followed by the beginning of the retreat.

There was but one thing for Joffre to do. He did it. In his communiqué of August 26, the bald facts were thus stated: "The Commander-in-Chief, having to summon all the troops of the Mouse front, ordered the evacuation of the occupied territory. The great battle is engaged between Maubeuge and the Donon (the effort to hold there

failed, as the reader will remember); on it depends the fate of France, and, with it, of Alsace. It is in the north that the Commander-in-Chief calls all the forces of the nation to the decisive attack. Military action in the Rhine Valley would distract from it troops on which victory might depend. It is necessary, therefore, to leave Alsace for the present. It is a cruel necessity which the army of Alsace and its chief have submitted to with pain, and only at the last extremity."

Many histories of the war, especially those written in England and America, have given but little space and attention to this Alsace-Lorraine campaign, and, even in voluminous military accounts, the Battle of Metz is given a minor place. German histories of the war, however, regard the matter with very different eyes, and Hilaire Belloc, an English critic of tactics, envisions the effect of Metz so clearly that one cannot do better than quote his words.

Views of an English Critic.

"Here we have a nation," he writes of Germany, "which has received within the first month of a war which it had proudly imposed upon its enemies, the news of two victories (Metz and Tannenberg) more startlingly triumphant than its most extreme expectation of success had yet imagined possible.

"Let the reader," he continues, "put himself into the position of a German subject in his own station of life, informed by a daily press which has come to be his sole source of opinion (like the American). . . . Let him remember that this man has been specially tutored and coached into a complete faith in the superiority of himself and his kind over the rest of the human race. . . .

"Let the reader further remember that in this, the Germans' rooted faith, their army was for them at once its cause and its expression; then only can he conceive what attitude the mind of such a man would assume upon the news from the West and the East in those days, the news of the avalanche in France and the news of Tannenberg. It would seem to the crowd in Berlin that they were indeed a part of something not only necessarily invincible, but of a different kind of military superiority from other men.

"These, from what would seem every quarter of the globe, had been gathered to oppose him, merely because the German had challenged his two principal enemies. Though yet far from being imper-

illed by so universal a movement, he crushes it utterly, and in a less time than it is under arms he is overwhelmed by the news, not of his enemy's defeat, but rather of his annihilation. (It was thus that the German newspapers interpreted it.)

"Miles of captured guns and hour upon hour of marching columns of prisoners are the visible effect of his triumph and the confirmation of it; and he hears, after the awful noise of his victories, a sort of silence throughout the world—a silence of awe and dread, which proclaims him master. It is the anniversary of Sedan.

"Only in an appreciation of this psychological phenomenon," writes Belloc, "can one understand the after development of the war. After the Battle of Metz, after the sweep down upon Paris from the Sambre, after the immense achievement of Tannenberg (which will be told in Chapter X of this volume), the millioned opinion of a now united North Germany was fixed. It was so fixed that even a dramatically complete disaster might still leave the North German unshaken in his confidence. Defeats would still seem to him but episodes upon a general background, whose texture was the necessary predominance of his race above the lesser races of the world.

"This is the mood we shall discover in all that Germany did from that moment forward. It is of the first importance to realize it, because that mood is, so to speak, the chemical basis of all the reactions that follow. That mood, disappointed, breeds fury and confusion; in the event of further slight successes, it breeds a vast exaggeration; in the presence of any real thought by local advance, it breeds the illusion of a final victory. It is impossibe to set down adequately this intoxication of the first German victories.

"The line had swung down irresistible. . . . Not only had there fallen back before its charge all the arrayed armies of the French and their new ally, but also all that counted in the hopes of the defenders had failed. All that the last few years had promised in the new work of the air, all that a generation had built up of permanent fortified work, had been proved impotent before the new siege train. The barrier fortresses of the Meuse, Liége and Namur had gone up like paper in a fire. Maubeuge was at its last days.

"The sweep has no parallel in the monstrous things of history. Ten days had sufficed for the march upon the capital. Nor had there been in that ten days a moment's hope or an hour of relaxation. No

such strain has yet been endured, so concentrated, so exact an image of doom.

"All along the belt of that march, the things that were the sacrament of civilization had gone. Rheims was invested, the village churches of French Flanders and of Artois were ruins or desolations. The peasantry . . . had been massacred in droves, with no purpose save that of terror; they had been netted in droves, the little children and women with the men, into captivity . . . .

"But there was to come—it was already in the agony of birth—the moment, a day and a night, in which one effort rolled the wave right back (the Battle of the Marne). Thereafter, with the passage of many days, with the gradual broadening of vision and, in time, the aspect though distant, of slow victory, the creeping domination acquired over the mass of spiritually sodden things that had all but drowned the race, the pressure of the hand tightening upon the throat of the murderer, was released a certain high potential which those who did not know it could no more comprehend than a savage can comprehend the lightning which civilized man regulates and holds in the electric wire. And this potential made, and is making, for an intense revenge."

It is in the light of this incredible spiritual arrogance that the atrocities in Belgium and Northern France can be understood. It was comparable to the use of the torture chamber by the Holy Inquisition as a means of bringing heretics to God. It was this mental attitude which made Prussia dangerous and will keep her dangerous for many years to come. Many things contributed to heighten and aggrandize that arrogance, at the beginning of the war, but none more than the proud boast—true to the very last day of the war—that the tide of battle did not rage on German territory. This boast was only made possible by the impotent outcome of the French campaign in Alsace and Lorraine.

CHAPTER VII.

VERDUN! "THEY SHALL NOT PASS!"

The France-German Frontier—The German Crown Prince—Fearful Loss of Life at Fort Douaumont—The French "75's"—Modern Artillery Methods—Changing Plans of Defense—Strategic Railways—St. Mihiel Salient—Nancy, Toul and the Southern Chain of Forts.

JUST as Ypres to Ostend was the solid embankment of Belgium against which the German generals, reckless of human life, hurled their tens of thousands of men; so Verdun was the French wall. It will give a true picture to represent Nieuport to Ypres, in the north, and Belfort to Verdun, in the south, as two granite walls, between which a heavy iron chain was swinging. The Germans could not knock down the walls. They did, from time to time, swing the chain.

A word or two will explain the importance of Verdun. The Franco-German frontier, between Luxemburg and Switzerland, as it then was mapped, was almost a right angle, with the point of the angle directed toward Strassburg. The south to north side of this angle ran along the line of the Vosges Mountains and was impassable to heavy military transport. There was a narrow gap to the south, near the Swiss frontier. The east to west side of the angle is fairly flat land, being composed of the valleys of the Saar and Moselle Rivers. Since the forested hills of the Argonne protect the Luxemburg frontier, it is this valley which is the opening to the plains of Champagne and the road to Central France.

Owing to the violation of Belgian and Luxemburg territory, the Germans had invaded and captured much territory in Northern France. Germany could have reached the plains of Champagne by a slightly different route, viz, by coming down the western side of Verdun, on the other side of the Meuse, and entering back of St. Mihiel, near Bar-le-Duc. Verdun, however, was again the corner to that move. As long as that fort was unreduced, it would be of no avail to pass it.

Belfort-Epinal-Toul-Verdun was the stone wall, and the great swinging chain was moored at Verdun. Everything hinged on that one fort. When the Germans willingly lost 500,000 men at that one point,

it was because they knew that one point to be the crux of the western front. France knew it also. Between 1870 and 1914 she had spent $1,500,000,000 in the Longwy-Verdun-Toul-Epinal-Belfort fortification line. Half of this money was wasted on works which the thitherto unknown siege guns rendered useless, the other half saved Verdun, which saved France.

The Battle of the Grande Couronne of Nancy, on September 8 and 9, 1914, has been told in its place as a part of the Battle of the Marne. It has also been shown that General Langle de Cary stood firm, thereby imperilling Foch. It is also to be noted that de Cary, with the Fourth French Army, did not join the pursuit of the fleeing Germans. It was his job to hold Verdun. He held it.

Verdun's Wonderful Stand.

On September 10, the battle-line ran due south from Verdun, turning by Bar-le-duc and Vitry toward Paris. On the 11th the fleeing Germans were on a line running through Chalons and Epernay. On the 14th, the Verdun pressure was slackening, with the line running through St. Menehould. On the 18th, the Germans had been driven back to the Aisne, with Verdun relieved from fear of attack from the southwest.

In all that has been said heretofore, the character of the Verdun defense has not been described, for it seems wiser to deal with that pivotal fortress as a separate entity. For the same reason, while the movements of the armies on either side of Verdun have been described, the Verdun Army has been left until now. The Third Army, at first under General Ruffey and later under General Sarrail, was at Verdun.

From this it is clear that the beginning of the Verdun story lies with the movements of the Third French Army. Verdun being a right angle, it was open to attack either from the north, at the northeast angle, or on the east. It was confronted, therefore, by three German armies, when the Marne battle-line commenced to form. The northern side was confronted by the Fourth German Army, under the Duke of Wurtemburg, the angle by the Fifth German Army, under the Crown Prince of Germany, the eastern side by the Sixth German Army, under the Crown Prince of Bavaria. Verdun, therefore, had to sustain attack from three directions. This task continued without cessation during the four years of the war.

It may have escaped observation that, up to this point, all such points as Liége, Namur, Maubeuge, and the German group, Metz, Strassburg, etc., have been spoken of as "fortresses," but that in this chapter the writer has called Verdun and Belfort "forts." This change of phrase is intentional. It was around the beginning of September that all these fortresses became forts.

The matter demands a little explanation, for it will explain why Liége fell in nine days, Namur in an hour, and Verdun not in four years.

The Construction of a Fortress.

A fortress, in the sense of the word as used before the world war, was a fortified place, the fortifications of which consisted of a number of large and small forts erected on hills or strategic points arrounding a central point. The fire of these forts was so arranged that, if one of them should be stormed by the enemy, the attacking party would be under the fire of the forts on either side. No fort, therefore, could be attacked without the invaders being subjected to the concentrated fire of three forts. In addition to the fact that each fort was as impregnable as possible in itself, this system absolutely prevented any individual fort being surrounded and cut off from the others. All forts were connected with each other and with the central point by good roads, frequently by light railways for handling munitions and other supply.

Liége and Namur were smashed to dust and splinters because the forts surrounding them were fixed. Once the huge howitzers got the exact range they could fire from tremendous distances and reduce the works at pleasure. The forts could not reply by direct gun fire, for the howitzers were always placed in trenches or behind low hills. As long as there were fixed forts which could be destroyed by high-explosive shells, so long were those forts but death-traps. Namur proved that conclusively. The attacking power directed against a fort was stronger than the defensive force. Old style fortresses were doomed.

Verdun had ceased to be a fortress. In place of masses of masonry, of earthworks, of disappearing cupolas, and the like, all the heights became a network of trenches, roads were multiplied, especial development being given to those which ran through woods and forests and were invisible from aeroplanes flying overhead. The great guns

nestled in greenwood glades. Narrow-gauge gun railways ran in every direction like the web of an eccentric spider and no amount of aerial reconnaissance served to tell the Germans exactly what was happening on that group of heights crowned by the citadel of Verdun. All the defenses thus were merged into one, and Verdun became one huge interlocked, intertwining fort, running up and down a dozen hills rather than a fortress composed of little forts. The same change, modified by the character of the ground, took place at Toul, Epinal and Belfort. In a minor sense, the same process was hastily carried out, at the beginning of the war, on the circle of hills near Nancy, known as Le Grand Couronne.

Verdun lies distant from Paris 140 miles and from Toul 40 miles. The city of Verdun was never attacked, though bombarded, and throughout the four years of the siege, farm life continued peacefully on the slopes and crops were garnered under the continuous roar of the guns.

The Defense of Le Grand Couronne.

The attack on Verdun took four phases, the first at Le Grand Couronne of Nancy, which was an attempt to circle both Toul and Verdun; the second at St. Mihiel, which was an attempt to circle Verdun from the east; the third at Ste. Menehould, which was an attack to encircle Verdun from the north; and the great frontal attack, designed to take the whole chain of hills by storm, at whatever cost.

The defense of Le Grand Couronne, as has been said, was one of the principal factors which decided the Germans to concentrate their forces on the western end of the Marne line, for they argued that Le Grand Couronne could never have been held by the French unless the defenders had the vast proportion of their forces at that eastern point. But this engagement—it was hardly a battle—is of the highest importance in its relation to Verdun and to the famous St. Mihiel salient which is inseparably associated with Verdun.

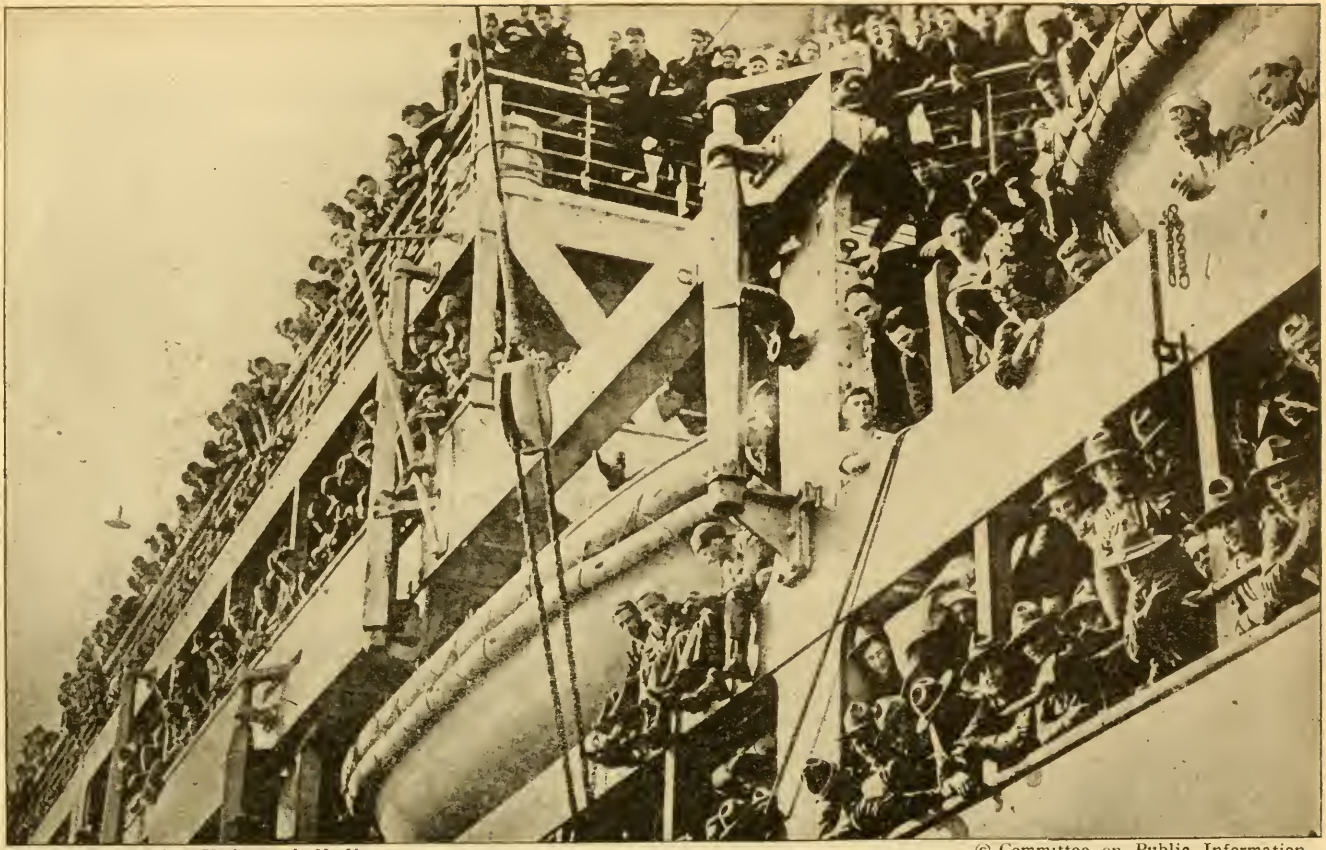
The lay of the land rendered it imperative for Castelnau's army to be defeated first. If this semi-circle or crown of hills—more like a diadem than a crown—could be stormed, then Nancy would lie at the invaders' mercy. If the Nancy heights were taken, then the Germans would possess ideal gun positions for their heavy artillery, with

British Official Photograph.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

A DASTARDLY CRIME WHICH AUTOCRACY CANNOT DENY.

Aerial photograph by a British pilot showing four huts of a British hospital in France, in which were helpless men who were blown to bits. All plainly shown in the foreground.



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FIRST LOOK AT FRANCE FROM A TRANSPORT.

United States soldiers seeing France as the transport arrives in sight of land. This vessel was formerly a Hamburg-American (German) liner.

From Western Newspaper Union Photo Service. © Committee on Public Information.

UNITED STATES COLORED LABOR TROOPS BOARDING A TRANSPORT.

An American Negro battalion entering a pier ready to board a transport. These husky doughboys perform their tasks with a vim and a will.

Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GERMAN WOMEN WHO OPERATED MACHINE GUNS.

This photograph was taken from the body of the German in the gray sweater at the left, on July 28, 1918. The three women operated guns against the United States forces about fifteen miles from Chateau Thierry.

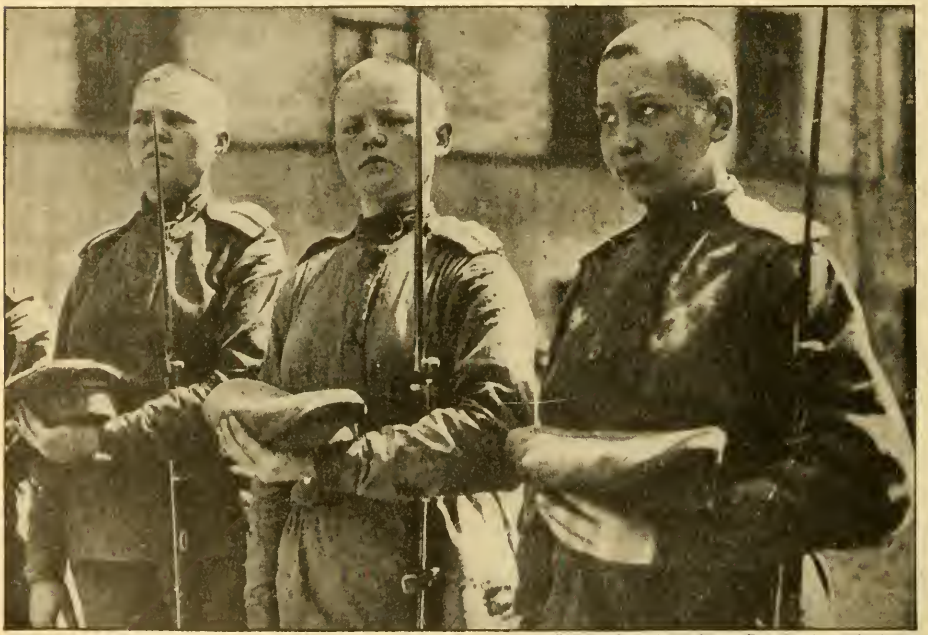


Photo by American Press Association.

WOMEN WHO FOUGHT FOR RUSSIA—"BATTALION OF DEATH."

Members of a Russian Regiment of Amazons, who fought fiercely and with great tenacity in many battles on the Riga front.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

MEMBERS OF THE DOWN AND OUT CLUB.

An interesting photograph. The words, "Aus grosser Zeit," on the picture mean "During the Glorious Reign," which has been pretty well shattered to pieces.

© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

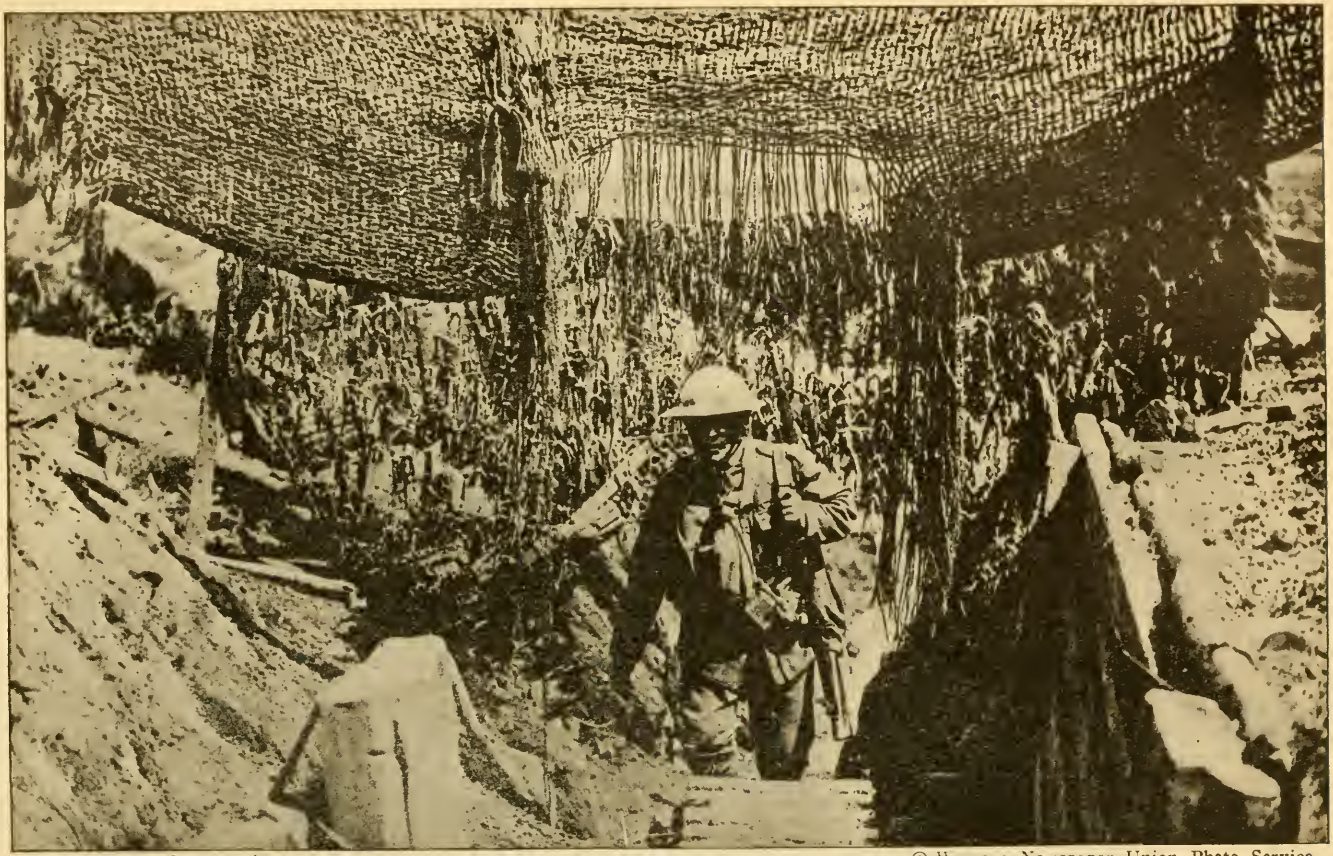
AMERICAN RED CROSS PARADING IN PARIS.

It was a most inspiring scene when the Stars and Stripes, Red Cross Flag, and the Tricolor of France were flying in unison at the head of these marching women. They were cheered by thousands as they went through the streets of Paris.

Photo from Underwood & Underwood.

INSIDE OF A COMMUNICATION TRENCH.

This photograph shows two French soldiers carrying a wounded soldier back to a dressing station through one of the trenches in the Somme.



British Official Photograph.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

A BRITISH TOMMY ON WAY TO TRENCHES.

This photograph shows a soldier crossing through a trench which is camouflaged. The screen prevents his being seen from the enemy lines.

British Official Photograph.

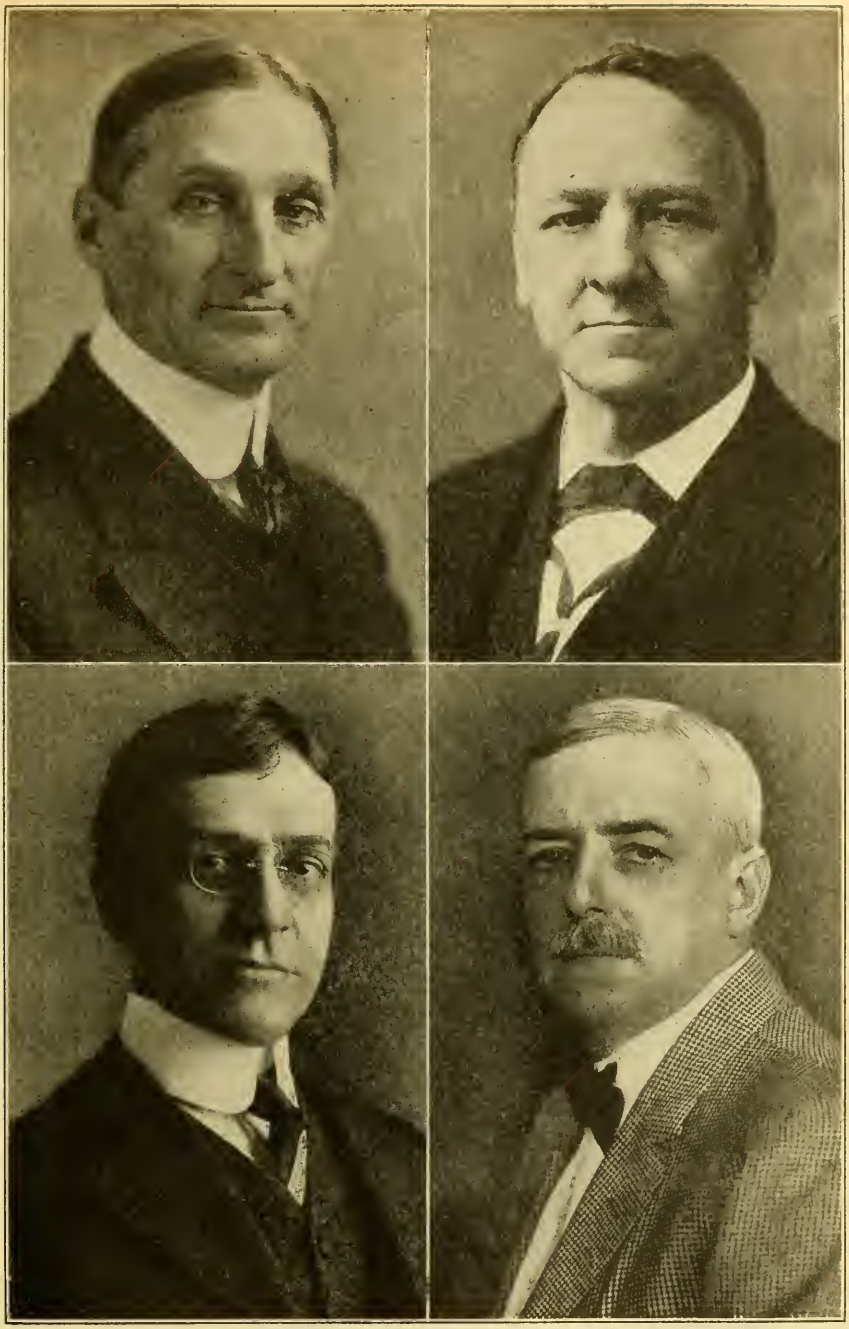
© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

U. S. A. TROOPS ADVANCING TO FRONT LINES.
They were on their way to take their places in the trenches beside their British comrades.

From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y. © Committee on Public Information.

U. S. A. TROOPS, 7TH INFANTRY, MOVING TO THE FRONT.

The Motor Transport Service is deserving of great praise for their rapidity and invaluable service in the movements of large bodies of troops, front to fight and back to sleep and rest.



BIG MEN WHO DID BIG THINGS.

Secretary McAdoo, Treasury.
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Secretary Daniels, Navy.
© G. V. Buck. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

Secretary Baker, War.
© Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

Secretary Lansing, State.
© G. V. Buck. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

Their deeds will stand in history for all time.

Canadian Official Photograph. From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

GENERAL HAIG CONGRATULATES VICTORIOUS CANADIAN TROOPS.

Marshal Sir Douglas Haig is here seen congratulating the victorious Canadians on the Western Front, on their splendid work in smashing through the German lines.

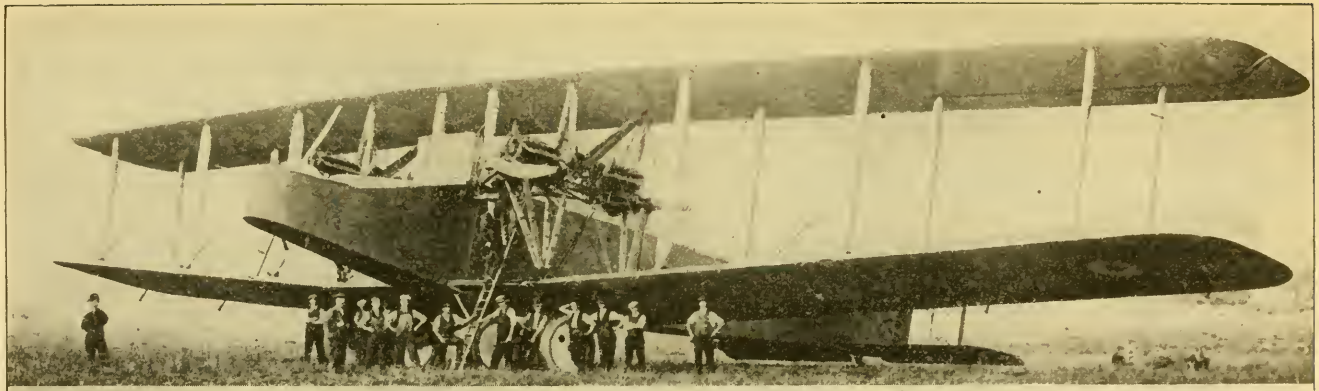

Photo by American Press Association. Photo from Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

THE HANDLEY PAGE SUPER AERIAL BOMBING DREADNAUGHT.

Designed by Mr. Handley Page, a British manufacturer. It was claimed that this giant plane could cross the ocean under its own power.

AUSTRALIAN INFANTRY MARCHING UNDER INSPECTION.

The Anzacs, famous for their brave and daring accomplishments, and among the best of fighters, made their own record, which will stand in history for all time.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

TRAINING DOGS FOR WAR SERVICE.

A despatch dog clearing a barbed wire. These message bearers were sometimes invaluable in fighting zones.

© Western Newspaper Union Photo Service.

TRAINING DOGS FOR WAR SERVICE.

Many different types were used in "No Man's Land" with good results. The photograph shows them starting out for a morning's training.

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From Underwood & Underwood N. Y.

FIELD TELEPHONE WITH AMERICAN EXPEDITIONARY FORCE.
Officers of a Field Artillery Division operating a field telephone in France.

From Underwood & Underwood, N. Y.

© Committee on Public Information.

Y. M. C. A. HUT NEAR THE FIRING LINE.

The Y. M. C. A. followed the flag right up to the trenches. The supplies shown above brought some cheer and contentment to the tired and fighting soldiers.

which to reduce the fort of Toul. The key to this situation, therefore, was Le Grand Couronne, this diadem of hills.

The attack began in force on September 4. The actual forces engaged gave the Germans a preponderance of about three to one, and their heavy artillery was in the proportion of five to one, for it had been strongly reënforced with guns from the fortresses of Strassburg and Metz. Three to one, however, is not heavy odds when defensive positions are to be stormed, and in the ten days between Castelnau's occupation of the position and the beginning of the frontal attack, he had intrenched very solidly.

The Kaiser Directing the Battle.

Pont-a-Mousson, which had been retaken by the French two days before, was captured by the enemy on the 5th. On the 6th occurred one of the most dramatic pictures of the war.

Suddenly, on the top of one of the hills overlooking the battle, there appeared a group of figures, seeming small in the distance, but all in glittering uniforms. After a pause one detached himself from the rest, and rode slowly forward. He was dressed in white, the gorgeous uniform of a Colonel of the White Cuirassiera. It was the kaiser. He was there in person, directing the battle and giving elaborate instructions with regard to the Arch of Triumph which was to be erected in the streets of Nancy, through which he planned to ride a day or two later.

If von Heeringen doubted the wisdom of this attack, as he well might have done, his only method of showing it was to hurl even larger masses of men from the south on the hills above Lunéville. But Le Grand Couronne of Nancy was to teach a new lesson of warfare. It was to reveal anew what the Germans found at Rheims, namely, that the French 75's, when intrenched, poured a mass of fire out of their slender throats against which mass drives were impossible. Von Heeringen and the Crown Prince of Bavaria first hurled hundreds, then thousands, then tens of thousands of men up the various steeps of Le Grand Couronne. Not once did those gray-clad masses effect a lodgment, at least none that were living did so. So terrible was the slaughter on the day that the Kaiser watched and made his plans for a triumphal arch, that the next day, Sunday, in spite of the pitiful con-

fession of weakness that it implied, von Heeringen asked for a truce to bury the German dead.

The Bavarian forces fought with incessant savage onslaught, like interminable packs of wolves. If they could not carry the heights by sheer strength, they would carry it by the terrible policy of exhaustion. They might strew the hills with dead, but if the charges were continuous, sooner or later French endurance could last no longer. There was a breaking point to the human frame. All day and night of the 10th and of the 11th this hurricane attack beat and beat against the human-held cliffs of Le Grand Couronne.

Crushing Defeat of the Germans.

It is ever necessary to bear in mind the outstanding fact that victories are won largely by the morale of the contending armies. These days, from September 6 to September 11, were days of great portent. That Sunday, September 6, when the Kaiser had stood on the hills above Nancy in his gay white uniform, was the Sunday when the famous taxicab army poured through Paris and went to the aid of Manoury, entering into hand-grips with von Gluck. The four days that the Germans strove with desperation to force Le Grand Couronne were also the four days of the Battle of the Marne. The day of the last final despairing effort at Nancy was the day of von Hausen's flight before the avenging hosts of France. Hour by hour this news was coming to General Castelnau, heartening his soldiers who staggered at their guns from exhaustion, hunger and strain; hour after hour the news reached the German officers—though it was not told to the men—that the drive on Paris was lost.

The morning of the 12th came. It came richly to Castelnau's army, with the glorious tidings of the victory of the Marne, it came agonizingly lest they, and they alone, should fail France at this crucial moment; it came darkly over the loss of Champenoux and the sight of German heavy artillery toiling up to a slope whence they might expect a withering fire.

"And, then," writes a French officer, "O Prodigy! Calm fell. Over the whole of the stricken field brooded peace. The enemy gave up, retreated for good, abandoned everything, even Champenoux, so bitterly contested, and the entire front he had occupied. He fell back in dense columns, without even a pretense of further resistance."

It was time. The French found 40,000 German dead on those slopes of destruction. All of Germany's force had to be turned to defensive tactics, if the line of the Aisne was to be held. One by one, St. Dié, Lunéville, Baccarat and Raon-l'Etampe were reoccupied by the French. Toward the south the Germans resisted stoutly, but could do nothing against the French, rested and flushed with victory; Rémérèville, Courbessaux, Drouville and the bloody Wood of Crevic were retaken, and when, on September 22, the Western Phase of the Battle of the Aisne had ended, the French tricolor waved over the place where the Kaiser had stood, just a fortnight before, to plan his triumphal entry. So ended the German invasion of France at Nancy, or, as it may be easier to remember, the attack between the fortresses of Toul and Epinal.

The Germans' Expensive Position at St. Mihiel.

So much has been written of St. Mihiel, and the American public was so sadly misinformed concerning the "wonderful feat" of driving the Germans out of St. Mihiel in 1918, that it is of interest and importance to see how the St. Mihiel position appealed to Richard Harding Davis, a most excellent American war correspondent, after the Germans had established themselves there.

"One expected to see at St. Mihiel," he wrote, "an isolated hill, a promontory, some position of such strategic value as would explain why, for St. Mihiel, the lives of thousands of Germans had been thrown like dice upon the board. . . . Why the German wants to hold St. Mihiel, why he ever tried to hold it, why, if it so pleases him, he should not continue to hold it until his whole line is driven across the border, is difficult to understand. For him it is certainly an expensive position. It lengthens his lines of communication and increases his need of transport. It eats up men, eats up rations, eats up priceless ammunition, and it leads to nowhere, enfilades no position, threatens no one. It is like an ill-mannered boy sticking out his tongue. And as ineffective!"

The Germans stuck in the St. Mihiel salient for four years, not because of any military value in the position, but because of a certain obstinate pride. The writer is convinced that French troops could have taken the salient any time during the four years that they wished to do so. There was no need to do so until the close of the war, when

it became strategically wise to straighten the line for the resumption of a great offensive. When a newspaper correspondent in 1918 stated that "the Americans had taken the St. Mihiel Salient, which had defied the armies of the world for four years" he was writing dispatches which would please the readers of his paper, but he was talking nonsense, just the same.

From what has been said, it is obvious, therefore, that since the Nancy and St. Mihiel offensives had been without decisive result, the next German attack would be on the western side of Verdun. The main object, in this case, was to cut the main line to Paris. This, sooner or later, would compel the fall of Verdun, for, owing to the configuration of the land, it would be difficult to construct another railway over the hills to the southeast.

Crown Prince's Tactics of "Nibbling the Line."

When the storm of the Second Phase of the Aisne had passed by and Foch had convinced the Germans that the taking of the French trenches around Rheims was a task beyond their powers, the German Crown Prince, who had intrenched north of the Rheims-Verdun line in the Forest of Argonne, devoted himself to an attack on the eastern side of Verdun, driving towards Ste. Menehould. Rheims and Le Grand Couronne of Nancy had convinced the German leaders that mass drive tactics were useless against the fearful accuracy and speed of the French 75's. Therefore—largely under the direction of General de Mudra, the former Commandant of Metz and an expert in fortress and mine tactics—the Crown Prince initiated that type of fighting which later became known as "nibbling the line."

The essential principles of this are simple. It consisted in driving "saps" (underground tunnels, or, sometimes, deep trenches) to within a few feet of the enemy's line. If underground, mines were exploded; if trenches, they formed the basis for a sudden grenade attack. Rarely more than four battalions were employed. Only a small sector was attacked. It was enough to seize a few hundred yards of the French first and second line trenches, consolidate them, fortify them, and work up the lines of supply. Then, ten days later, would come a bite at another point. There were forty of these attacks between October, 1914, and May, 1915.

In June and July, 1915, there were three really serious attempts

to break through the French lines. The first was stopped almost at once. The second—which lasted ten days—was more dangerous and the main railroad came under the fire of German heavy artillery. The third, also, had moderate success. During August and September, however, Sarrail cut out from under the famous Le Mort Homme Hill and compelled the Germans to give back.

What may be called "The World's Greatest Battle" began in February, 1916, and lasted for eighteen months. It was brought about by three things. The first was that the "nibbling at the line" tactics ceased to be of any value, because the French had learned how to do it better than the Germans and, in such tactics, the disproportion of numbers was of little account. The second reason was that the reorganization of munition conditions in France had enabled the French trenches to be as well supplied as the German. The third was the evidence that the St. Mihiel salient was a loss rather than a gain.

Preparation of the Germans for a Great Attack.

During the entire winter of 1915-1916, the German General Staff decided to concentrate on an actual storming of Verdun. It had become known that the Allies were planning a great offensive in the spring. The Germans felt that it was necessary to prevent this, or to offset this by a victory at the end of the winter. Moreover, there was a dynastic side to the affair. The Crown Prince of Germany had become a military joke. As the next Kaiser, it was intolerable that the war should leave his personality in such disrenown. For the sake of Hohenzollernism, it was imperative that the troops nominally under his charge should achieve a spectacular success. Moreover, if Verdun fell, an advance was possible into the plains of Champagne, with the seizure of Chalons. All winter, therefore, the Germans brought up guns and troops, ready for the great attack.

In December, 1915, the Germans received strong reënforcements from troops no longer needed in the Serbian campaign. Sectors which had been held by one or two corps, now were held by six or seven. By the middle of February 440,000 men were facing Verdun, of whom 320,000 were infantry. During the winter the Germans had built fourteen strategic railroad lines. The guns were numbered, not in scores, or hundreds, but by thousands. It was by far a bigger concentration than Germany's initial drive to Paris. How the Germans

regarded its importance may be seen from the words addressed by General von Daimling to his troops just before the first attack was delivered: "In this LAST offensive against France, I hope that the Fifteenth Corps will distinguish itself by its courage and its fortitude, as it has always done."

The French line around Verdun may be said to have begun, west of the Meuse, at Malancourt, just below that hill significantly entitled Le Mort Homme (Dead Man's Hill). On the eastern bank of the Meuse it ran from Consenvoye to Brabant, then along the line of hills to Haumont and Caures Forest. There it turned round the angle slightly, holding the heights above Beaumont, the spur of the Côte du Poivre (The Steep of Pepper) and so eastwards, holding the low banks of the Ornes River by Fromezey and Gussainville and Fresnes round to St. Mihiel. Back of this line was a second line of defense, running through Forges, Haumont, Bezonvaux, and Hermeville. Back of this was the third line of defense, marked especially by Champneuville, Fort Douaumont, Fort Vaux and Haudigmont.

Bombardment of Unbelievable Fury.

It was a few minutes before four o'clock in the morning of February 21, 1916, that the great attack began. High-explosive shells fell like hailstones. Trenches were buried, dugouts were ruined, trench shelters were blown to fragments. There was no question of holding the front lines. Within three hours there were no lines to hold. There was no question of remaining hidden in cover of the forest, by noon, trees had been stripped bare of their boughs and only twisted and scarred trunks remained. The very face of nature was distorted. One French correspondent described the scene after eight hours of bombardment as "storm-tossed ground rent into hills and hummocks like a frozen jumble of waves, with shattered tree stumps rising here and there like jagged teeth."

On February 26 this driving of victims into the maw of Moloch, god of Destruction, seemed justified. The Brandenburg Regiment stormed the slopes of Douaumont with magnificent gallantry and seized the ruins. German General Headquarters announced "the capture of the fort of Douaumont, the northeastern corner-stone of the principal line of the permanent fortifications of Verdun." It was retaken by the French an hour later, lost again in the afternoon, regained in the evening, and night fell with Douaumont claimed by both sides. As a

matter of fact, the dust-heap which once was Douaumont was held by none but corpses. The Brandenburgers held the trenches which they had made, although almost surrounded. No Canadian forces at Ypres, Australians at Gallipoli, or French at Lens, fought more gallantly than did the Prussians that day.

Just a few dates will show the continuance of this long-drawn-out agony. On February 26, 1916, the Germans captured Fort Douaumont. On March 7 they reached as far as Fresnes. From March 10 to April 12, without a moment's cessation, the Germans attacked Le Mort Homme. It cost 40,000 men, and then was not taken. On May 8, the Germans secured a footing on Hill 304—which is the eastern end of Le Mort Homme. On May 22 the French, counter-attacking, recaptured Douaumont, but they held it only two days. Bavarian troops stormed the heights again. On June 6 the Germans occupied Fort Vaux, a notable advance, but one which subjected them to artillery fire. This was a case where victory was more costly than defeat. During June, July and August, the field defences of Thiaumont changed hands nineteen times.

A very powerful offensive was started by the French in October, resulting in the recapture of Fort Douaumont on October 24, of the Haudromont Quarries on October 25 and of Fort Vaux on October 28. For these gains the French paid heavily. Many thousands of children in France were made fatherless in those four days. In December the French drove forward steadily and a counter-attack by the Germans on La Mort Homme failed, ending with their loss of Hill 304.

The spring of 1917 saw a repetition of these tactics and August, 1917, saw a French response. Douaumont and Le Mort Homme were still in French hands. By December, 1917, France had regained 100 of the 120 square miles which had been taken by the terrific German drive of 1916, and practically all the strategic points were in their possession. The spring of 1918 saw the positions but little changed. During 1918 the whole face of the war changed, the story of which belongs in later chapters of this book.

"They Shall Not Pass!" This motto of Verdun became the motto of France. It has become the motto of liberty. If France may be regarded as the Blessed Garden to which impious men desired to enter, then Verdun was the angel with a flaming sword that barred the way.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE CHANGING TIDES OF WAR.

The To-and-Fro Swing of the Battle-Line for Four Long Years—Neuve Chapelle—The Labyrinth—Lens—No Man's Land—Barbed Wire Entanglements—Battles of Great Intensity for Minor Gains—Soissons—English Tanks Break Through the Hindenburg Line.

IN a previous chapter, the simile was given of the battle line as a huge iron chain swinging between Ypres and Verdun, for these two points did not change from the time of the first establishment of the line until the last great Allied offensive which ended the war. The farthest Allied advance, or the first defense line, was Antwerp-Namur-Givet-Montmedy-Metz-Saarburg-Colmar-Mülhausen. This broke at the first impact. The farthest German advance at the height of the first drive on Paris was Ostend-St. Omer-Arras-Amiens-Beauvais-Meaux-Coulommiers-Sezanne-Bar le Duc-St. Mihiel-Nancy-Lunéville-St. Die-Altkirch. (The line did not run exactly through these points, but close to them. The names chosen are those of towns which will be found on any ordinary map.)

All the fighting on the western front was within this zone. Drives and offensives were made by both sides at differing times. In this battle line, shaped like an unfinished letter "S," there were three chief points of attack. There was first the German effort to pierce through to Calais, to cut off British communications and to essay an invasion of England, if possible. At the first curve there was the goal of piercing through to Paris, leading from the Aisne by the route of Chateau-Thierry. At the second curve, there was the goal of piercing through to the Champagne plains by hammer-blows on either side of Verdun. None of these goals was far from realization. The line at Ypres was pierced once, by the use of poison gas; at their nearest the Germans were within forty miles of Paris and, even in the last year of the war, were bombarding the city with a long-range gun; in the third case, Verdun was once so nearly isolated that it was pocketed into a narrow salient only twelve miles across, with powerful German armies on three sides of it.

The first winter of the war, that of 1914-1915, immediately after the deadlock of the Aisne, resulted in incredible hardships to both sides. Trench warfare was in its experimental stages. The trenches were full of icy mud and water. A typical action of that time was the German drive at La Bassée and Givenchy in December, 1914. The British were driven back, with heavy losses, the Germans suffering even more heavily. Yet, after two weeks' fighting, the old positions were regained.

The first serious engagement after the establishment of the battle-front was what Sir John French called "the costly victory of Neuve Chapelle." The British casualties in three days were 12,811. The net result of that action was to teach both sides the necessity of heavy artillery preparation before making an infantry attack on trenches sown thick with machine guns.

The British had advanced a mile on a three-mile front, but they had failed to win the ridges which were the key to Lille. In this famous Battle of Neuve Chapelle it is important to realize how bitter was the fighting, and how small the advance. A pouch of one mile on a three-mile front, which does not secure strategic points, amounts to nothing. Yet this action cost both sides over 12,000 men.

The Fiendish Huns Use Poison Gas.

Once and once only in all the war did the Germans actually pierce the western front; actually break the line, not bend it. They had one great chance, although this was achieved at the price of dishonor. "They sold their souls as soldiers," said Sir Conan Doyle, writing of this day, "but the Devil's price was a poor one." The day of which he spoke was that one when the Germans pierced the line near Ypres by the use of poison gas, contrary to all the usages of war.

About five o'clock in the evening of April 22, 1915, from the base of the German trenches and over a considerable stretch of the line, there appeared vague jets of white mist. Like the vapors from a witch's caldron these jets gathered and swirled until they settled into a low-hanging cloud-bank, greenish-brown below and yellow above. This ominous bank of vapor, driven by the slight northeastern breeze, drifted slowly across No Man's Land just at the point where the British and French commands joined.

The African troops, in the trenches, peering over the top of the

parapet at this curious cloud, which, for the moment, gave them a temporary relief from the continuous bombardment, suddenly were seen to throw up their hands, to clutch at their throats and to fall to the ground in the agonies of asphyxiation. Many lay where they fell. Others, absolutely helpless against this diabolical agency, rushed madly out of the mephitic mist and fled in terror. The southerly drift of the wind caused the heavy vapor, heavier than air, to run along the French trenches like a slow-moving liquid. There was no withstanding it.

The German artillery and infantry were ready. They followed the gas cloud, possessing masks for their own protection and took possession of the three successive lines of trenches (first, double and support) without a shot. They seized those long-held lines without a shot because those trenches were tenanted only by dead men, whose blackened faces, contorted figures and lips fringed with blood and foam from their bursting lungs showed in what agonies they had died.

Then the hidebound German strategy of the textbook lost them all their advantage. Had the Huns dared, had they plunged forward boldly, had they thrown vast masses of cavalry into the opening caused by their poison gas, they might have reached Calais.

Gallantry of Scotch and Canadian Regiments.

For once in its career the British Army was in confusion. The green cloud of death was impervious to shot and shell. But, with the chance of a dash in front of them, the Germans stuck to their old tactics of turning round and flanking a cut-off army. They found themselves in the position of the man who, with bare hands, has clutched a thistle. The force they flanked was a mixed Scotch and Canadian force.

The wind changed next day. Gas could not be used. Canadians, Scotch, Irish, English, Indians, fell on the enemy from the north; French, Moroccans, Senegalese sped at the German lines from the south. The Germans counter-attacked. The death-roll of that April 26 was terrible. Of one of the Indian regiments, only seventy answered to their names that night, in another, only eleven. Another regiment, the Duke's, was caught on a hill. The cloud of gas settled around the elevation as the rising tide surrounds a rock. Finally two men staggered out, an officer and an orderly. Every man save they two was

dead. The officer died that night. Of all that regiment only one man, the orderly, survived.

The sole thing which prevented a terrible defeat, one which might have changed the result of the war, was that on this, the first use of poison gas, it was not employed in cylinders carried by soldiers, but was emitted from large reservoirs by pipe-lines running from the trenches. It could not, therefore, follow an advancing army. Had the asphyxiating gas been perfected as it was toward the end of the war when it was used on that first day, the war might have been over. The Germans could have advanced without a shot and strolled over all the trench defenses, forts and everything else. Without masks, no soldiers could have fought back, no horses would have remained to handle the light guns.

The Germans Advance Only a Short Distance.

On May 5, when a heavy attack was made, the Germans found themselves able to advance but a short distance. On May 8 the Germans advanced again. Their artillery work was of the first order, but the moment it came to infantry contact they failed. On May 10 a desperate charge was made towards Ypres, with gas and artillery concentration. It was blocked. The push continued daily without result, a last final effort being made on May 24. But, by this time, the British troops were all equipped with gas masks of one sort or another, and the lines held firm.

The Germans had enjoyed the immeasurable advantage of more men, heavier artillery, the element of surprise and the fiend's brew of poison gas for a month. They had broken the Allied lines. They had every conceivable advantage of modern war, and some that civilized warfare had never even conceived. Yet, at the close of that month, though they had driven the British and Canadians back, they had only gained a maximum of three-mile penetration on a narrow salient; they had failed utterly to take Ypres, and even some of the strategic points that they had gained they lost soon afterwards.

Later, much later, the Allies decided that it would be Quixotic to continue the chivalrous attitude of declining to use poison gas, that since Germany had commenced such nefarious warfare, she must be met with the same. Asphyxiating gas, tear gas, mustard gas and a score of other types were exploded in shells. Gas became a part of

the ordinary horrors of warfare, and respirators were developed and improved to keep pace with every new deadly and agonizing mixture devised by chemists.

On May 1, 1915, began one of the most desperate hand-to-hand battles of the western front, being the French capture of an extraordinary system of trenches known as "The Labyrinth." It was a maze of trenches, dug-outs, mine galleries, bomb-proof shelters, machine gun nests and every device known to trench warfare at that time. The orders of the French were "to take it, inch by inch." They fought without stopping for 400 hours, one company stepping in as those who had gone before them fell out from exhaustion. The crack of the hand grenade, the crackle of machine guns and the roar of artillery never ceased for a second. The slaughter was fearful, for the trenches were so winding and confused that the capture of one was often a trap, since it could be swept by enfilading fire from another trench. Aside from wounded and missing, 2,000 French soldiers were killed outright in "The Labyrinth," but, at the end of 400 hours, the whole maze of trenches was in French hands. It was a gallant feat—but it had no appreciable effect on the line.

Heavy Losses by the Germans.

What was known as "The Great Champagne Offensive"—though it was actually a three-fold offensive in Champagne, Artois and Flanders—was another typical example of the terrible sacrifice of life required by trench warfare for moderate territorial gain. It began on September 25 as the greatest Allied effort since the beginning of the war. There was a distinct but moderate gain all along the line.

The offensive in Artois produced but little more result. At a cost of 50,000 casualties, the British made a two-mile penetration on a five-mile front, in one of the most brilliant offensives of the early part of the war. The loss of the Germans was estimated at 150,000, inclusive of prisoners, and in Germany was regarded as a very serious blow. But the fact remains that the German line stood, and could not be pierced. The same drive captured the city of Loos, but the objective of encircling Lens was not attained. The winter of 1915-1916 settled down to that peculiar type of formal trench warfare which a year and a half of modern war had developed.

It may aid the reader to visualize the world war if a brief ex-

planation of the character of trench warfare be given. The world war, as was well said by Colonel Azan was a "war of positions" rather than a war of movement. As positions, or field defenses, can only be beaten down by field artillery, when any change in position occurred it was the ability of the artillery to manoeuvre quickly which was the determining factor. Napoleon trusted to the legs of his soldiers, because his battles were mainly infantry battles; a modern army must depend on the legs of the guns, which is to say, tractors and horses, and, still more importantly, railroads or highways with solid bridges. Mobility of heavy artillery became a chief urgency during the world war.

Trenches, Positions and Fronts.

It was because heavy artillery was the only agency that could destroy entrenched positions that it became so important, but likewise, it was the positions themselves which constituted the powerful defense and which therefore were equally important.

A trench is not a position. A trench is one of the defenses of a position. Hills, rivers, marshes and woods are strategic features which become positions, and these are of value in the double ratio that they are difficult to take by the enemy and easy of supply by the defense. A first-rate strategical position which is isolated by bad roads is the poorest sort of position, while a narrow canal with level banks on both sides, with good roads feeding it, may become a position of incredible strength. To illustrate, the lofty mountain chain of the Carpathians did not save Serbia, the narrow canal of the Yser did save the corner of Belgium. Some of the lofty crests around Verdun were taken, the low hill of Le Mort Homme resisted.

Trench fighting begins with air reconnoissance. It is of no use attacking the enemy if one does not know where he is. To waste ammunition blindly is folly. Heavy artillery does not begin until exact maps have been prepared showing the enemy's gun positions, his supply depots, the location of his highways and light railroads, the lines of his trench and dug-out systems and the supporting points of his reserves. Since heavy artillery is only of smashing value, it must know what to smash. Hence months may pass in preparing for an offensive. If the mapping is good, if the artillery is heavy enough and if there is plenty of ammunition, every enemy position should be destroyed, all

the trenches leveled, and the forces of the enemy demoralized by the terrible concentration of fire.

Infantry plays the principal role in the actual fighting. In trench offensive warfare there is little need for rifle fire, that is for defense; there is little need for the bayonet, the shape of a trench does not permit of it. In the world war, the hand grenade, the revolver and the trench knife were much more widely used.

The Conduct of Trench Warfare.

Field and light artillery move forward with the infantry, as do also trench mortars and machine gun squads. Field artillery uses shrapnel, mainly, and is not designed to attack defenses, but to fire on troops. Cavalry, operating with the light artillery, is of little use in a war of positions. It is invaluable, however, in a war of movement, and when an enemy is driven from his positions by combined artillery and infantry attack, a bold cavalry dash may easily cut off the enemy from making new positions and turn a mere retreat into a decisive victory. It is of infinite value in delaying reserves, cutting railways, breaking telephone and telegraph connections in the enemy's lines, surprising and cutting off transports and convoys.

The engineering corps, during the world war, attained an importance hitherto unknown. When on the offensive, the engineers have to advance with the infantry, to repair, relocate trenches, build up new defenses to run with new positions, in pursuit they have to repair bridges, make roads and recreate the conditions which enable the consolidation of the new advanced line.

Trench warfare, being a war of positions, its defensive character is of vast importance.

A first line trench is an irregular line, the shape of which is determined by the character of the ground and the position of the enemy. It is almost never in a straight line, it is rarely in the waved line of the textbooks, though an effort may be made to conform to the same. Generally, in a hasty trench, a man is sheltered when seated, but can fire when erect. All trenches are cut into short pieces by traverses about sixteen feet apart. This prevents the enfilading of a line of trench if a small part is taken by the enemy, it also protects each compartment of a trench from projectiles exploding in neighboring compartments. Special emplacements for machine guns are built, generally for oblique fire in the event of a hostile offensive.

Behind the first-line trenches are the second-line trenches, or doubling trenches, for the shelter and rest of men not on duty. Here are the dug-outs and in these second-line trenches the officers stay except during an offensive.

In the world war no two sectors on the battlefront were alike. In most cases mine craters and shell holes created new opportunities of protective device, a hillock would change a whole face of the trenches, the possession by the enemy of a small rise of ground would necessitate a dozen different forms of transversal trenches.

Behind this whole defense system comes the support trenches, in some cases reached by boyaux, generally sufficiently far behind the first line to make a very stiff defense in the case of the first line being taken by a hostile offensive. They average from a quarter to three-quarters of a mile behind the first line.

New Type of War in 1916.

At various points between these first line and support zones are the shelters, observing stations, telephone posts and depots of all sorts, frequently only reached by boyaux or sunken roads. It is an important part of trench warfare to teach the troops to know thoroughly all the intricacies of this invisible maze of sunken streets when it is impossible to see where one is going. Signs and sentries must be posted everywhere. Trench life, well organized, is by no means a time of waiting. It is highly active. There is a great deal to learn and more to do. Sapping and mining operations are constant.

In the world war, co-ordination became the chief essential and, more than ever before in war, the great commander needed to be primarily a commander of organization. It is true that Foch was not Napoleon, but it is equally sure that Napoleon could not have been Foch. Haig proved himself a marvellously brilliant general, Pershing a first-class soldier, but the ability to co-ordinate a vast battlefront, to grasp movements of men by millions and of transports by tens of thousands of tons, in other words, to be the Supreme Commander, was characteristically and ideally in the hands of Foch.

The beginning of 1916 saw a new type of war. A French captain, writing at this time, put the matter in a nutshell when he said: "So long as the armies which face each other, with normal effectives on a depth that daily increases, continue to occupy the trenches which they

hold at present, we do not believe in the possibility of carrying by assault a fortress whose centre can constantly change its position."

The principal military feature of 1916 was the German attack on Verdun, which has been told in full in the chapter of that all-important point. The end of the second year of the war saw the Allies more confident, Germany more worried. England's greatest need was officers, for most of her best blood had been killed in the first year of the war. France's greatest need was transport. Italy's greatest need was munitions. These were all built up to a high degree of efficiency.

Beginning the Third Year of the War.

The opening of the third year of the war witnessed a great Anglo-French offensive on the Somme. This was not a drive with intention to pierce the German lines, but a very large effort to seize Perrone, an important strategic and railroad point. Since the objective failed, the drive failed; since it secured twenty-seven important strategic points it was a victory. The casualties on both sides were very large, reaching 100,000 men on each side during the three and a half months that the steady pounding of the British and French continued.

It was during this offensive that the "tank" first sprawled its reptilian way through and over the bloody slime of battlefields, spitting fire from its ungainly and toad-like sides. The first heavy tanks were incredibly ludicrous in appearance, advancing with a crawling waddle and, by their mere weight lunging over trenches, crushing walls to powder, smashing chevaux-de-frise to splinters and driving barbed wire into the mud. "Sliding along the ground on caterpillar wheels," says one writer, "they suggested the giant slugs of a prehistoric age. They had armored cheeks on each side of the head, above which guns stuck out like the stalked eyes of land crabs."

"For six months the trenches on either side had remained unbroken. In sixty minutes two tanks, backed up by the French infantry, had driven the Germans back, captured a thousand prisoners, taken several score machine guns and frightened an entire German Army Corps into wild-eyed and headlong panic."

Their construction had been kept a profound secret. The tanks made their first appearance in the engagement of Martinpuich, and the first one seen by the Germans crawled up on the village of Flers in the dawn of September 15, 1916. The successful advance on the Somme,

during the next two months, was largely due to the use of tanks. From that time until the end of the war numberless new forms of tank were devised, a few larger, but some smaller. The French tank was more like an armored automobile, the Italian like a swiftly moving fort. The small "whippet" tanks of the British, able to move as swiftly as infantry at the double, were of incalculable value. It will be remembered by the reader that French tanks preceded the infantry advance at Chateau Thierry, that Italian tanks held the bridgeheads at the Isonzo during the great retreat and saved the Italian armies from being cut off, and that the British whippets turned the scale in Belgium during the last drive of the war.

Objects Achieved by the Battle of the Somme.

The Battle of the Somme, lasting from May 19 to November 15, 1916, was declared by many "The Greatest Battle in History," in regard to the number of men engaged, the fierceness of the fighting, and the duration of the conflict. It was a victory for neither side, but Haig declared himself fully satisfied that it had achieved its three principal objects: (a) to relieve the pressure on Verdun; (b) to prevent any transfer of troops from the western front and thus aid the Allies on all other fronts; (c) to wear down the enemy. But Haig, a conservative and modest soldier, admitted that "the enemy's power has not yet been broken," although he also declared that "a full half of the German Army, despite all the advantages of the defensive, supported by the strongest fortifications, suffered defeat on the Somme this year." This is incorrect. It did not suffer defeat, but it sustained a disastrous repulse.

The third year of the war resulted in little change on the western front. There were a great many different reasons for this. In the first place, the autumn of 1916 saw the entrance of Roumania into the war, and the resulting disaster. It marked the end of the Somme offensive. It saw the beginning of the Russian revolution. The spring of 1917 saw the break-down of Russia, and warned the Allies not to attempt too much on the western front. The early summer of 1917 saw the entrance of the United States into the war, with the assurance to the Allies that the longer they stayed quiet, the stronger they would grow and the weaker Germany would become.

In the autumn of 1917 the battle raged with unprecedented in-

tensity in Flanders. Ypres was nearly taken by the Germans. August, September and October saw ceaseless fighting. Passchendaele Ridge was taken, lost again and retaken. Most of the front was a shambles. German and British fought with equal gallantry. But, in the long run, the Germans were beaten back.

Lens, no longer a city, but a fort, with all its outskirts defended by an elaborate system of German pill boxes, known as "elastic defense," was fought for by the French and British for two months. The outskirts were reached, but the German occupation could not be broken. A new German offensive was launched at Verdun, without result. The chain vibrated all the time, it swung a little here and quivered a little there, but it could not be forced through. And, meantime, day by day, American soldiers were reaching France, and great armies were being gathered into camps in the United States.

The tanks broke the Hindenburg line at Cambrai, in the battle that raged there between November 20 and December 12, 1917. But, even with their aid, the British did not take Cambrai. Even with their aid, the chain did not break. On the contrary, it swung forward with the British and was pushed back again.

The German Offensive in Spring of 1918.

When 1917 closed, the Allies were stronger at every point, and the Germans growing weaker. It was an open secret that the coming spring must see a German offensive, it was obvious that this would be, if not the last, one of the last, for the Americans were coming over every day. The whole swing and balance of numbers had passed from the Central Powers.

This spring offensive, which, there seems reason to believe, the Germans really believed would land them in Paris, was the result of two solid years' preparation. It burst on March 21, 1918. All previous records of artillery bombardment were broken. For the first time in two years the Germans reverted to their old tactics of heavy massed drives. The results were sweeping. Within five days they had taken back all that the British had gained by the five months' Battle of the Somme, and they had even driven beyond their own positions before that great Allied offensive.

On the French part of the line the smash was equally decisive. The defense held in the Oise Valley, but only by falling back. The

Chaulnes-Lassigny-Noyon line bent, but, instead of falling away to the southward, the French stiffened along the Aillette and fell back to the east. By March 26 Roye had fallen and Lassigny was in German hands. Montdidier fell in the fighting of the first few days in April and the thrust toward Amiens became even more savage.

In Flanders the German success also was great. The British and Portuguese were forced back on the Lys. On April 11 the British gave ground near La Bassée. On April 12 Merville was lost. A three-day fight at Neuve Eglise gained it for the Germans on April 15. The three points, known as "the desperate three," Poelcappelle, Langemarck and Passchendaele, were all taken on April 17. The fighting around Mont Kemmel, south of Ypres, rose to a fury not surpassed by any fighting of the war, and with its capture on April 26, Ypres seemed no longer to be tenable. By May 14, Hill 44, north of Kemmel, had changed hands eleven times, but the German offensive in Flanders was broken. The British-Belgian line was in terrible danger, Ypres was flanked, but with bulldog stubbornness the British refused to give way, and inch by inch they won the ground back. It was, perhaps, as the Germans declared, only desperation which kept the British firm. None the less, the line remained intact.

The Offensive Halted.

On May 28, this offensive broke forth at a third point, in Champagne, and commenced with the same spectacular success. The Chemin des Dames was carried and the watershed of the Oise-Aisne fell into Ludendorff's hands. By June 2 the eastern half of Chateau Thierry was in their hands and the great salient had been developed. There, again, it was compelled to stop.

The fourth phase in this offensive was productive of much smaller gain. It was an attempt, beginning on June 9, 1918, to draw to the south and to the west the battle lines that had been established by the first thrust toward Amiens and the third thrust towards Chateau Thierry. In some ways, it was, perhaps, the heaviest, though not the fiercest blow of all. Compiegne was the goal sought. If this objective could have been attained—and the Germans were very near it—the Picardy front would have given them a strategic front by which they might have pounded their way nearer to Paris. They gained seven miles, indeed, but French counter-attacks (in which the American Ma-

rines participated) took back most of this ground and revealed, as nothing else could so well do, that the punch had reached its uttermost. Like all offensives, it had spent its force.

It is perhaps difficult to realize the intensity of the German offensive of 1918, nor to grasp the importance of its stoppage. It had been of tremendous swiftness and great force. The line was far advanced. It ran near Ypres-Hazebrouck-Bethune-Arras-Albert-Amiens-Montdidier-Compiegne-Soissons-Chateau Thierry-Rheims. But it was over. It had not taken Ypres. It had not moved the Belgian-British line toward Calais. It had not taken Arras. Most important of all, it had failed to reach Amiens. It had come to a most inglorious stoppage in front of Compiegne, it had found itself in a nasty pocket at Chateau Thierry, which it was not able to widen, and Rheims, of old, stood defiant, though a terrible gash had been made to the west of its defenses.

If Amiens could not be reached, if the valley of the Oise was so stoutly held, since it was dangerous to follow further down Chateau Thierry on a long, narrow salient, there remained only the strategy of using the principal advance for a blow at Rheims. In the next chapter will be told this last German offensive and what happened to it.

In leaving, then, this picture of the backward and forward swing of the battle line, one main fact stands out clearly. The Allies had held, and held successfully, the whole battlefront at all points. It had only been broken once—and that for forty-eight hours—by the first blast of poison gas at Ypres. The Germans had never been able to reach as far as the line of their first drive. Even before the arrival of the Americans, it had become evident that Germany could not win. It was a deadlock. Germany had lost the war, but the Allies had not won it.

America's part lay largely, not in defeating Germany, but in enabling the Allies to gain a final victory. The part they played in driving the Hun from the fields of fair France and the devastated villages of Belgium belongs in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IX.

DRIVING THE GERMANS OUT.

The Great Teuton Offensive of 1918 an Utter Failure—Foch Starts at Last—American Regiments at the Front—Chateau Thierry and St. Mihiel—Tactics of "the Pincers"—Ludendorff Outmanoeuvred—The Kriemhilde Line—German Retreat, Rout and Disaster.

GERMANY'S last offensive, her forlorn hope, her final desperate effort was launched on July 15, 1918. It was a stupendous drive in men and metal. From every rule of war, especially in remembrance of the previous drives of the four years previously, she should have had a first overwhelming success, followed by a slowing up. Contrary to every expectation, Allied as well as German, the drive was stopped at the start. It never got going at all.

The explanation of this amazing result lies in five words—the mastery of the air. Von Moltke's military dictum had been the three words "power, speed and surprise." German power had been waning, the deterioration of morale had resulted in a diminution of potential speed and the element of surprise was gone. No longer could Germany launch an unseen army at any given point, as she had done with von Hausen's forces at the beginning of the war. Italian, French, English and American aeroplanes flew over her lines day and night. Scarcely a regiment could move, certainly not a division, and most assuredly not an army without every detail being wirelessed back from the sky to Allied headquarters.

This offensive was designed to isolate Rheims, to create of that important outpost a narrow salient which could be swept with cross-fire. It was almost successful. On July 15, 16, 17 and 18, the Germans pushed south and east. By July 18, Rheims was a semi-circle ringed with steel, and the enemy was battering this semi-circle with a terrific weight of men and shell. Rheims had become a second Verdun, demanding the same heroism to defend it.

At this point Foch repeated the tactics he had used at the Battle of the Marne. Withdrawing in the direction of Epernay, he caused the Germans to believe that they were attaining their goal, namely, the

isolation of Rheims. This bulge, however, lengthened the German line, which is only another way of saying that it thinned it. Instead of increasing the troops necessary to hold Rheims, which looked like the point of greatest danger, Foch detached armies from the defence of Rheims and sent them to Chateau Thierry, although the French and Americans had shown no sign of yielding. Then, on July 18, at the very time that the Germans were surest of success in pinching in behind Rheims, he delivered at Chateau Thierry an irresistible counterblow, with the whole force of the Americans, the French, and the newly arrived French reinforcements.

Foch's Surprise Attacks.

In order to get a clear idea of the Battle of Chateau Thierry and its co-ordinated attack on Rheims, it is necessary to understand the position of the two armies, and the events of the preceding few days which had brought them into these positions.

At terrible cost, during June, the Germans had gradually punched in a dent on both sides of Rheims. On June 18 they launched an infantry attack, were allowed to come close to the defences and then three divisions were torn to pieces by a French barrage from guns whose location had not been guessed. A "surprise fire attack," as it was called by the Germans, on the morning of June 19, was equally disastrous. On June 23, having learned that the French troops were being moved from the sector near Bligny, the Crown Prince attacked there, only to find that the sector had been taken over by the Italians, who promptly proceeded to make mincemeat of the German First Army under General Fritz von Bülow.

Three days later Foch inaugurated the series of minor shock offensives which an American war correspondent described as "giving the Hun the jumps." On June 26, the British bit into the line at Lys, east of Hazebrouck. On June 28, from an equally unexpected quarter, the British plunged in a mile deep on a four-mile front east of Nieppe Forest, taking four villages. The same day the Australians secured a minor victory near Merris, and the local gains near St. Pierre Aigle gave 1,000 prisoners to the French. On July 1 came the taking of Vaux and the Bois de la Roche by American troops.

It would be unfortunate to give to the engagement at Vaux an importance disproportionate to the rest of the war, merely because the

action was conducted by American troops, yet Americans rightly felt that this first all-American encounter, so successfully carried out, had an interest of its own.

The actual fighting took less than twenty minutes, but when it was over, hill, village and wood were all in American hands.

All these minor actions were a part of Foch's pincer tactics, which, as has been said, consisted of continuous small offensives, creating narrow salients, which were pinched out later. On Independence Day, July 4, 1918, the Americans fighting as platoons among the Australian troops, the combined forces took the village of Hamel and the trench system. The Australians, rough fighters themselves, had nothing but praise for their American comrades. There was nothing big, but what was done was well done. Again there was a small push southeast of Soissons on the 8th, another near Montdidier on the 9th, and the historic village of Corcy in the Forest of Villers-Cotterets was taken by the French on July 11. Six other similar bites into the line occurred between that day and July 15.

Then came the last German offensive!

The Final Attacks of the Huns.

The next three days were to mark the beginning of the end of the war. The part of the battlefront involved has become familiar to the reader and ran as follows: From Albert across the Somme to Moreuil on the River Aure, thence to Montdidier, which was in German hands; thence in a southeasterly direction north of Compiegne, which was in Allied hands; thence through Ribecourt to Soissons, in German hands; thence in a wide pocket shaped something like a heart, with Chateau Thierry at the point and Rheims at the top of the opposite curve; and thence along the old line through the Argonne to Verdun.

The German attack had three main objectives, two of them designed against Rheims, the third, a drive against Paris. The latter, however, was dependent on the success of the two former. The points of attack were southwesterly from the eastern side of Rheims and easterly from the deep pocket west of Rheims. This was a repetition of the tactics of the German Crown Prince around Verdun when trying to cut off that fortress by the establishment of the St. Mihiel salient and the drive at Ste. Menehould. The general strategy of this last offensive, then, was first, to isolate Rheims, and then to throw the

whole of the line in the Chateau Thierry direction with the intention of crossing the Marne and driving westwards towards Paris. As ever, Paris was still the flame around which the German moth fluttered to its own destruction.

For this offensive of July 15, 1918, the German Crown Prince actually threw into the battle line, during the three days, a force of 900,000 men. He kept 400,000 men in reserve. There were thus 1,300,000 men available in the German line. This number had only become possible by thinning other parts of the front. Although Foch's whole battlefront was stronger in men than that of the Germans, on these sectors his forces were weaker. He had 600,000 French, 175,000 Americans, 100,000 Italians and 75,000 British troops, inclusive of reserves.

The "First Coup de Foch."

The Allied troops were in four armies, all under French commanders. Holding the important section east of Rheims was General Gouraud; his was an all-French army save for the addition of one division of American troops (27,500 men) held in reserve and one American negro regiment in the fighting line; his left wing rested on Prunay, part of the Rheims defenses. From Prunay, holding Rheims itself, and thence southwest down the line of the pocket as far west as Dormans (a few miles east of Chateau-Thierry) was the large army under General Berthelot; to which were attached an entire Italian Army Corps, two American divisions and a division and a half of British troops. From opposite Dormans, through Chateau Thierry and northwards round the pocket to a little beyond the Ourcq, came the army of General de Goutte, also with two American divisions acting with his troops. From thence north and west, past Soissons and the Aisne, came the army of General Mangin, two American divisions being attached to his army also.

It was officially announced that seven American divisions and one negro regiment participated in this "First Coup de Foch," in all cases attached to French commands and acting under French commanders. This is not to be taken as meaning that the American troops were not led throughout by American officers, but that these officers operated under French direction and that the battle plans and tactics were all a part of the general French plan. The Battle of Chateau-Thierry and the beginning of the great Allied offensive happened be-

fore the Americans were organized into a separate field army "on their own." The Chateau-Thierry offensive occurred on July 18, and by August 5 the Germans were in full flight. The American First Field Army was organized under General Pershing on August 11, 1918. It acted independently in the war as an army for three months to a day.

The Germans commenced with initiatory successes. On the west they pierced the lines held by the Italians at Bligny, on the first day, but Berthelot closed the gap with reserves at once. They bent back the line to the east of Rheims, at Prunay, and then struck a rigid defense against which they could not move an inch. Gouraud's defense of the line east of Prunay was extraordinary. It resembled in its character the holding of the lines around Rheims by Foch during the eastern phase of the Battle of the Aisne.

First and Second Days of the German Offensive.

That same first day of the offensive there was a feint at Vaux, which seems to have been an error and not part of the original plan, followed by a heavier attack near Chateau Thierry on the sector held by the Americans. The Americans were forced back to Condé-en-Brie by a small force, 25,000 men, but they counter-attacked, driving the enemy back across the Marne and taking 1,500 prisoners. This was a neat piece of work, well done.

The second day of the offensive was fiercest at Prunay. The attacks there were launched with an intensity and fury which resembled the earlier days of the war, but another quarter of a mile advance was all that the Germans could gain. Gouraud was the pivot of the whole offensive. If he wavered, Rheims was in danger. Like Sarrail at Verdun, he would not let them pass. On the western side the dent made at Bligny was made wider, Marfaux being taken. Berthelot, realizing the importance of holding his position and not wishing to sacrifice too many men, held the advanced trenches with artillery, withdrawing a mile and a half to strong positions on the edge of the Forest of Montagne.

The American positions near Chateau Thierry were again being attacked this second day, and with considerable force, but no impression was made. A reënforcing French Army of reserve, under General de Mitry, came up and supported the junction between the armies of

General Berthelot and General de Goutte, at which junction the Americans were fighting. Efforts by the Germans to cross the Marne at Gland and Mareuil were thrown back with heavy losses. In the hands of American gunners, the French 75's poured in a terrible fire.

The third day of the offensive, July 17, 1918, the Germans registered some small successes on their main battlefields near Rheims. To the east they forced Gouraud back to Beaumont, a mile to the rear of Prunay. To the west they reached the borders of the Montagne Forest. This double advance, secured at terrible cost of life, was gradually drawing the net closer around Rheims, which had never been in such danger during the whole war. From east to west, seven miles south of the city, the German lines were only twelves miles apart, a highly dangerous salient. If the Germans could pinch this out it would affect the whole battle line and release a vast force of men for the intended second push in the direction of Chateau Thierry.

Foch's Brilliant Coup.

In that direction, that is to say, in the sector where the Americans had found most of the fighting, the Germans again tried to reach Festigny, the heaviest part of this day's attack being on the French end of the sector. The Crown Prince was not only thrown back, but one division of American and two divisions of French troops, acting together, took St. Agnan and Monhodon, the former being an all-American gain.

On July 18, 1918, Foch struck. The movement had been kept a complete secret. There was not the least preparatory artillery fire. At 4:45 A. M., with no more artillery support than rolling barrages ahead of them, the whole line from Ambleng, six miles west of Soissons, to Bouresches, five miles northwest of Chateau-Thierry, went over the top. The Americans were concentrated at the pivotal ends of the line, near Soissons and Chateau-Thierry. The American troops in the southern sector fought with great spirit. In less than an hour they had advanced on and captured Torcy. The Americans acting from Ambleng, behind a support of French tanks, drove ahead with a vigor which surprised even the French. So swift, so irresistible was the attack that the French commander felt himself justified in ordering another advance at 9 o'clock, and yet another at noon.

It was open warfare all along the line. The French cavalry, and

especially some of the mounted African troops, enjoyed it thoroughly. Batteries handled by the Americans advanced with a dexterity equal to that of the French.

General Mangin's army, in that one day, advanced six miles into the pocket, reaching as far as the River Crise, and took 9,000 prisoners. Compared with the effects of the huge three-days' offensive by the Germans, which reached a penetration of only five miles, this was enormous. But, in the case of Foch's coup, the strategy was more important than the territorial gain. This advance of six miles, on the northwest of the pocket, outflanked the German troops operating towards Chateau-Thierry in the southeast. If, then, the Germans continued their effort toward the Marne, each mile of advance only put them in a tighter box. Instead of being in a position to pinch out the Rheims salient, they found themselves tightly clipped in Foch's pincers on the two sides of the Chateau-Thierry salient.

Results of Foch's Pincer Tactics.

This prospect of defeat compelled the withdrawal of a part of the First German Army under General Fritz von Below to support the armies under von Hutier and von Eben facing General Mangin. This relieved the pressure against the French on the eastern defenses of Rheims. The very next day, therefore, July 19, Berthelot sent forward the Italians and, with a gallant dash, they recovered Bouilly. That day Mangin contented himself with consolidating the positions he had secured, while General de Goutte advanced cautiously two miles along the Ourcq to strengthen his junction with General Mangin. His right wing, at Chateau-Thierry, he left unchanged, holding its strong pivotal position. These two days' fighting, which netted 17,500 prisoners and several hundred guns, were typical of "pincer" tactics. There was no costly frontal attack. Foch was doing to the Germans in the Chateau-Thierry pocket, exactly what the Crown Prince had been trying to do to the French in the Rheims pocket.

The last day of the month gave rise to some desperate fighting in which American and British detachments had their full share, resulting from a determined German endeavor to hold the Forest of Nesles, northeast of Fère. The Meunière Woods also saw some gallant work by the Americans. They charged six times against German positions, but were beaten back every time.

The capture of Soissons on August 2, 1918, after one of the most desperate resistances of the entire offensive, was the determining factor of Mangin's whole advance, and when the French under Berthelot reached the River Vesle, near Fismes, on the evening of August 3, the whole battle line of the salient was won. The amount of stores and munitions captured during the advance of the first three days of August was incredible. At one point, alone, 300,000 heavy shells were taken, without counting rifle, machine gun and light artillery ammunition.

On August 4, the fifth anniversary of the beginning of the world war, American gunners held Fismes under their fire and American and Italian infantry, supporting French troops, occupied the outskirts of that important point on the Vesle River. The capture of Fismes, which occurred next day, was declared by the French commander to have been due largely to the excellence of the work of the American engineering corps which threw bridges across the Vesle, though under heavy fire. American infantry entered and took the town on the evening of August 5.

Operation of the Picardy Pocket.

The line having thus been straightened between Soissons and Rheims, through Fismes, Foch's next coup was against a much deeper and larger pocket, which was known as the Picardy Pocket, since the old province of Picardy lay in that region.

The actual operation of the Picardy pocket may be told briefly. Haig opened the ball. On August 8 he drove forward suddenly nine miles on a plateau south of the Somme and north of Moreuil. To the south, however, the French, under General Débeny, had found the Avre Valley held by heavy fire and had been compelled to proceed more slowly. Rawlinson with the British halted and turned slightly south. This pinched the Germans on the Avre, and relieved Débeny, who promptly flanked Montdidier. On August 10 the British and French pincers of Rawlinson and Débeny closed on Montdidier, which fell at once with a capture of 25,000 prisoners. British losses were slight, French losses heavy.

On the southern flank of the retiring Germans the French advanced again, compelling a retirment to the famous massif of Lassigny, pursuit being so vigorous that the Germans failed to make a stand there.

Meanwhile, to the north, Haig was driving fast and furiously, and, by August 18, the Germans had been forced back to the line Albert-Chaulnes-Roye-Lassigny.

Satisfied so far, Foch continued his tactics of suddenly seizing small strategic points, one of the most important being the capture of Merville on August 19. It became clear during the last two weeks of August, however, that the German defense was weakened at all points. It became still further obvious that Foch had a preponderance of numbers. Like a star to all the armies shone the spirit of victory leading them. The Germans were on the run. The old von Hindenburg line was threatened. Back, back and ever back the Germans fell, losing prisoners every day, abandoning vast stores of materials.

On September 18, just two months after the opening of Foch's great offensive, the British had stormed, seized and passed the Hindenburg line north from Marcoing to Lens, the British and French were within five miles of it at all points and a-straddle of it at the important point of La Fère. Meantime, the famous Lys salient was wiped out by the British, the Passchendaele Ridge was retaken, Ypres relieved and the whole line advanced beyond Armentières.

Working the Pincers at St. Mihiel.

In so general an advance, reaching from Ypres to Rheims, it was not to be expected that other parts of the battlefront would be idle. Foch knew well that there is no time so good for a blow as when an enemy is retreating. He would have liked to have followed up the Crown Prince's retreat, after the wiping out of the Chateau Thierry pocket, but, in order to do so, it was necessary to straighten out the line east of Verdun. The St. Mihiel salient, harmless hitherto, was an impediment to united effort.

"The operation at St. Mihiel," wrote an Associated Press correspondent, "was of the pincers type always used to nip off a salient. One claw of the pincers, some twelve miles thick, rested on the Moselle at about Pont-à-Mousson. (The reader will remember the importance of this point at the end of the Alsace-Lorraine campaign.) The other, about eight miles thick, rested on the heights of the Meuse at Haudiomont, a little to the east of the river. (This is a lower part of the defenses of Verdun.) The distance to be filled up between the claws of the pincers was about thirty miles, and the ground to be nipped off by them would be about 200 square miles. . . .

The first day's fighting saw the southeastern claw of the pincers advance up to the full limit assigned to it, but the western had to face more difficult ground and strenuous opposition. It too, however, reached its assigned position later in the day.

The operation was conducted by General Pershing, with the first American Field Army (the first operation of an American army as such), and a French army under General Pétain. French tanks were used in large numbers. After the armies operating from the west and the southeast joined at Heudicourt, south of Vigneuilles, there was nothing for the Germans to do but surrender. In spite of their entrapped position, however, several of the dug-outs resisted strongly. There was some savage though unimportant fighting on September 14. Meanwhile, the rest of the line was pushing northwards and on September 18 Pont-à-Mousson was three miles within the French-American lines and the new battle front ran from Fresnes through Doncourt, Charey and Morville to Nomeny. The German frontier was only a mile away.

The first phase of Foch's great offensive, therefore, had been the wiping out of four salients, in their respective order the Chateau-Thierry, Picardy, Lys and St. Mihiel salients. The second phase was also of the pincer variety but a huge pincers, one whose jaws went from the south of the whole battle line to the north. One jaw was at Laon, the other at Cambrai.

The Germans Steadily Forced Back.

Laon may be regarded as the apex of an equilateral triangle of which Soissons-Rheims forms the base. Pétain had failed the year before to force Laon by frontal attack over the Chemin des Dames and the Ailette River. Foch took it, as usual, by the pincers method of working on both flanks, from the St. Gobain forest to the west, and from the Berry line from the southeast. On October 7 Berthelot had taken Berry-au-Bac, the supply point between Laon and Rethel, and Mangin had taken the greater part of the Chemin des Dames. This compelled the retirement of the Germans from the Aisne and the famous Craonne plateau which figured so largely at the opening of the war in the crossing of the Aisne. On October 13 Mangin took the St. Gobain massif after a severe fight, and the strongholds of La Fère and Laon fell immediately without any contest.

After the wiping out of the Lys salient by the British, the Germans counter-attacked and were repulsed. On September 25, the 30th American division was attached to the Third British Army under General Byng and on the 27th they advanced on a fourteen-mile front. This flanked the German hold on the coal fields of Lens which they evacuated on October 3, and on October 9 Cambrai was occupied by British and American troops. Thenceforward the St. Quentin and Cambrai lines operated together.

This, it will be noted, created two nicks, into which the jaws of the pincers fitted. The southern nick was enlarged by Pershing's army, and on October 4 the Americans went over the Kriemhilde line, the rearmost German defense line south of the Belgian frontier. On October 7 the Americans—this was a bitter fight—drove the Germans from the heights holding the River Aire, and enabled a junction with Berthelot's army which had taken Berry-au-Bac on the same day. Thus, for the first time since its investment in 1914, the cathedral city of Rheims was out of the range of German gunfire. It had been the recipient of shells almost daily for four years.

The Allied Drive Gained Strength as it Advanced.

Bitter was this fighting, although the Germans were in flight, but it was less spectacular than the amazing drive of the Allied lines through Belgium, when French, British and Belgian troops smote the Germans with a never-ceasing sweep of their sickle of steel and shell, all under the command of King Albert of Belgium. To give the events of this movement, day by day, would be only to give a series of names. Let a few great days suffice.

On September 30 Roulers was taken by the Belgians and the British left the last end of the Passchendaele Ridge behind them forever. On October 2 General de Goutte's army joined this sector and the pincers began to close on Lille. The great Flanders offensive began on October 14 with a force that the Germans could not withstand. They tried, for two days, but the advance on Courtrai and on Bruges was of a power invincible.

Lille was retaken on the 17th and Douai on the same day. The port of Ostend was evacuated also on the 17th and the Belgian patrols entered Bruges, likewise. Next Zeebrugge fell. On October 19 the Allies reached the Dutch frontier. On October 20 the Germans began

to leave Brussels. Holding the line—not from bravery, but to try and get as good terms as possible in an armistice—the Germans cried, "Enough! Enough!" By November 11 the Allies were at Ghent, with Antwerp and Brussels within reach.

This flight went on through the whole battle line. With Cambrai, St. Quentin, La Fère, Laon and Rethel all gone, the Allied line pushed on beyond Maubeuge. On November 6 the First American Army took Sedan and the forts of Metz fell under range of the American naval guns. To the last week, yes, to the last day the Huns continued to pillage and slaughter, and left, wherever they could, incendiary bombs and infernal machines.

Just as Mons and Charleroi had seen almost the beginning of the war in its larger sense, so the war ended there, for Mons was on the final battle line, held by the British as it had been held four years before.

The world has seen some dramatic moments, but never since the finger of Fate peopled this spinning globe did it see a more dramatic moment than 11 o'clock in the morning of November 11, 1918. The officers, all along the battle line, knew that the armistice had been signed. The soldiers did not. On the American front an artillery fire had been laid down at 9:30 o'clock and at 10:30 the boys went over the top. Every officer, every platoon leader had his watch in hand. At eleven o'clock to the second, from the North Sea to the frontier of Switzerland came the word from tens of thousands of officers' throats:

"Cease firing!"

A silence, a dreadful silence fell. For several minutes the ears of all men were numbed. For the first time in four years the guns had ceased to roar. The air fell still. The power which regulates all words—whatever that Power may be or by what Great Name it may be called, had said, "Let there be Peace!" And there was peace.

Not that peace had been signed. It was but an armistice, though an armistice with drastic conditions. Yet it was peace, none the less, a peace that could not but come finally; a peace which justified the prayers of women and the life-blood shed by men; a peace which extinguished the flames of a four years' hell; a peace which blazoned on the world's sky the great cry of Browning: "God's in His Heaven; All's right with the world!"

CHAPTER X.

SERBIA UNDER THE STEEL-SHOD HEEL.

Mutual Invasions on the Eastern Front—Austrian Defeat at the Drina—Belgrade Changes Hands Four Times—Reorganization of Austrian Armies—Germany, Bulgaria and Turkey at the Rear—Fall of the Iron Gate—Surrender of Monastir—Conquest of Serbia.

THUS far the story of the war has been told in definite continuity, so far as the Western Front is concerned, and the chief antagonists have been Germany and France, with Belgium and Great Britain playing smaller, but all-important parts. It is necessary, now, to turn to the eastern front, and to treat as a single and complete whole the story of the Austrian-Serbian campaign as such. The diplomatic questions entering into this phase, the tangle of treaty relationships and the racial issues involved will be found in the Second Part of this book, treated in some considerable detail. Here, the war will be considered as war, only.

To gain a clear idea of the Balkan territory, draw a line from Venice to the mouth of the Danube, or, if the reader prefers, take the line of 45 N. parallel of latitude. Only the province of Moldavia, belonging to Roumania, will lie north of this. Draw another line from Naples to Constantinople, and, on the Balkan peninsula, only a very small piece of the Turkish Empire projects northward and this is distinctively Balkan; part of Albania, which is entirely Albanian, lies south of this, but Albania is classed with Greece.

The Balkans may thus be regarded as a rough oblong, with the Adriatic Sea and the Black Sea respectively on the west and east, or shorter sides of the oblong; Turkey occupying the greater part of the southern side; Austria-Hungary and Russia facing the northern side. Now divide this oblong into three equal parts by drawing a perpendicular line one third of the way from the western end, and dividing the larger eastern end in two by a horizontal line. The square western end will be Serb, the northern eastern end will be Roumanian, the southern eastern end will be Bulgarian. In later chapters of this

book the race questions will be dealt with fully, but, for a rough military idea, let it be supposed that these three groups of peoples are approximately the same in number. It is one of the chief causes of trouble in the Balkans that the boundaries of territories do not agree with the boundaries of the lands occupied by those peoples. Much of northern Turkey is Bulgarian, much of southern Hungary is Serbian, much of eastern Hungary is Roumanian, and the Russian province of Bessarabia is Roumanian also.

The Serbian campaign, then, in a word, consisted of the conquest of this western square of the Balkans by the Austro-Germans and the Bulgarians. Since Roumania did not enter the war on the side of the Allies until later, it follows that Serbia, at the opening of the war, was almost entirely surrounded by enemies. Her defeat was certain from the beginning unless Russia and Roumania came to her assistance from the east and north and Greece from the south. Since Russia was too much occupied to do so, since Roumania could not make up her mind whether to join the Allies or the Central Powers and since Greece played battledore and shuttlecock with her promises and her allegiances, Serbia was deserted and left to her ruin.

Difficulties Confronting Serbia.

The operations in this theater of the world war were of a threefold character. There was the Serbian-Austrian campaign on the west side of the square; the Serbian-German campaign on the north side of the square; and the Serbian-Bulgarian campaign on the southeast side of the square.

The topography of Serbia, moreover, was not conducive to military movements upon the scale needed in the world war. Her mountains, though well adapted to guerrilla warfare, were not disposed in such a fashion as to make a single chain, defensible at a few passes, in such a way, for example, as the Carpathian Range protects Hungary. Moreover, the rugged nature of her country had an added disadvantage, that of transport. Roads were few and poor. Consequently, cross-country operations were extremely difficult.

Furthermore, and this was a crucial point in all the campaigns, owing to her lacking of sea-coast Serbia could only secure munitions through a neutral country and by one single railroad line, that running from Belgrade, through Nish, to Saloniki. Nish is one of the

most important railway junctions in the whole Balkan peninsula. There the line from Saloniki, running north through Uskub, joins the great transcontinental Paris-Vienna-Budapest-Belgrade-Nish-Sofia-Constantinople Railroad. All supplies for northern Serbia must pass through Nish, yet that junction was only thirty-five miles from the Bulgarian border. Moreover, the line from Nish south to Saloniki was in even greater danger at Vrania, midway between Nish and Uskub, for there it was within ten miles of the Bulgarian frontier.

So far as military resources were concerned, comparisons are misleading. At the most, including reserve, the Serbs and the Montenegrins together could not muster more than 300,000 men. Austria could summon 1,000,000 men and could call on Germany for aid. Austria, as the invader, had the advantage of determining the point of attack; Serbia, defending, had but the choice of determining the general line along which the attack must be met.

War Begun Between Austria and Serbia.

The military story of the Serbian campaign in the world war begins with July 25, 1914, on which day, with inexcusable arrogance, Austria refused to accept Serbia's answer to her ultimatum, and her minister left Belgrade. On July 26 the mobilization orders were issued by Serbia and her army began to gather. On July 27—war not yet having been declared—the Austrians crossed the Serbian border at Mitrovitza, on the Save (just at the northwest corner of the square). Realizing what was coming, the Serbians blew up the bridge across the Danube and shots were exchanged. Though guns had been fired at Mitrovitza, this exchange of shots at the time of the blowing up of the great bridge over the Danube at Belgrade was regarded as the opening battle of the war. On July 28 Austria declared war, and there were skirmishes between Austrian and Serbian outposts on the Drina River. On July 29 the bombardment of Belgrade began and the eastern phase of the world war was in full swing.

Finally, on August 12, 1914, behind the shelter of some small islands in the Drina River, opposite Loznitsa, the Austrians opened attack, with a concentration of heavy artillery. The small Serbian detachment replied gallantly, but the river bank on the Serbian side was not tenable, and with a tenth of their men killed in the first exchange of fire the defenders retreated up the slopes and intrenched

lightly on better natural positions. The Austrians threw up breastworks, dug trenches, threw across a pontoon bridge and crossed in force, in far greater numbers than the Serbians had anticipated. An army corps and a half, about 70,000 men, entered Serbia at this point. On the same day a whole army corps crossed at Shabatz, on the Save, taking up position on a level plain. Four other crossings were made by smaller forces.

On that day, first day of invasion, therefore, the Austrians had thrown across both sides of the right angle which formed the boundaries of Serbia a force of about 160,000 men, well equipped and provided with plenty of artillery. It may be remarked that, throughout the world war, Austrian artillery proved better than German, and that the best guns used on the western front came from the Skoda works, far surpassing those of Krupps'.

Failure of the First Austrian Invasion.

The advance began on August 14. The most important points for the Austrians to gain were the heights of the Tser Mountains, which separated their two largest armies. The Austrians stormed the heights. But, while the Serbians were inferior in numbers, they were far superior in fighting quality. Every soldier was a veteran of the two Balkan wars. They knew war, and modern war at that. The Austrian soldiers had never smelt powder. They broke at the first fire and ran.

The Austrian artillery tried to cover the retreat, but, without the support of infantry, the guns could not advance. The artillery did its best, men and oxen tried to haul the guns over mountain paths and rocky trails, but the Serbians, at home in such fighting, rushed over the rocks yelling, and charged among the batteries with bayonets and hand grenades.

In spite of this desperate resistance, the Austrian artillery gained command of parts of the Tser ridge. But there was neither time for profound intrenchment nor did the ground allow of it. Serbian control of the heights above the valleys absolutely precluded the formation of a continuous battle line. Superiority of artillery was of little use to the Austrians, the battles were too much broken up by the saw-toothed character of the country.

Fighting on the 17th and the 18th was much of the same character. At one point the Austrians advanced, at another they fell back. The important point, however, was that the Serbians absolutely prevented the union of the Austrian armies, which would have enabled the invaders to establish a solid, intrenched line on the Valievo plain.

On the 19th the Austrian batteries were dislodged from the heights they had won on the Tser ridge. This put all the controlling points in Serbian hands again. On August 20, the Austrians in the valleys were in a hopeless case. The Serbians swarmed down on them. The Austrians fled, leaving arms, ammunition, guns, provision, prisoners, wounded and everything else, fleeing panic-stricken for the Drina River which they had proudly crossed in force ten days before.

By the 21st only the Austrian army remained which had crossed to the north at Shabatz, over the Save. Three days' sharp fighting disheartened this army also, and on August 24 the last Austrian trench was evacuated and the last unwounded Austrian soldiers retreated to their own country. The first Austrian invasion of Serbia had been an utter and a ghastly failure. Over 6,000 men had been killed, 4,000 prisoners had been taken, together with 40 guns, scores of machine guns and huge stores of ammunition. The Serbian losses had been heavy also, 3,000 dead and 15,000 wounded. It had been a costly, though a glorious victory.

Austria's Second Invasion Stopped.

The Second Austrian invasion closely resembled the first. It began at the same points and resulted in the same tactics. Warned by the first defeat, however, the Austrian commanders contented themselves with making and holding small gains. The fighting was fierce and personal. Old wartimes seemed to have come again. Huge stones were rolled down the hills on advancing troops, soldiers hid behind trees to stab or shoot individually, men grappled and fought with knives and teeth. Again the invasion was stopped. All attempts to gain the Valievo Plain were fruitless, but Austria had effected a lodgement on the Serbian side of the Drina. It had cost her 150,000 men. Trench warfare at once commenced, as on the Aisne, with the resultant deadlock.

For six weeks Austria prepared a third, and, as she supposed, a final blow. She realized to the full now, the difficulties that she would

have to face. Day after day there poured across Hungary all the mountain artillery, mules and Tyrolean troops that could be mustered. The regiments formed of peasants, which could be used in mass drives on the western front, were sent thither, and crack regiments were brought down from the Russian front. The first two invasions were to be but skirmishes, compared with this third campaign.

The Third Invasion a Disaster to Austria.

The great Austrian attack was launched on November 15, 1914, and, after several days of careful "feeling out" the Serbian positions, overpowering masses of men, backed by a heavy concentration of artillery, were hurled at this long defense line from three different points. On November 20 and 21 the center of the Serbian line resisted, being beaten back from mountain point to mountain point, but on the second day it collapsed. Elsewhere the line held and repulsed the Austrian advance. On the 24th the southern end of the line was broken. The army near Ushitze was compelled to retire as far as the Gionjagora Mountains, at the head of the Western Morava Valley. Only in the north, along the Kolubara River, had the Austrians not been able to advance.

Under a new commander the Serbian Army changed its tactics. General Mishitch, believing that Balkan troops were better fitted for the Balkan form of fighting than for this defensive holding of line after line, with the suddenness of a thunderbolt shot the supposed discredited central armies right at the very strongest point of the Austrian lines. It took a bloody three days to win Suvobor, but the Austrians were no match for the Serbians the moment the conflict came to close quarters. The first invasion had ended in a flight, the second in a rout, the third became a disaster.

The news acted like strong wine. All along the Serbian lines the success intoxicated the men. They leaped from their trenches and fell on the Austrians, helter-skelter, everywhere. Batteries lolloped forward and took up new positions on their own initiative, the cavalry galloped shouting over paths used only by goats and sabred the enemy at unexpected corners. Ravines suddenly became machine gun nests whence poured an enfilading fire on the fleeing Austrians.

The colonel of a Serbian regiment begged his men to halt and rest. They shouted, "Fighting is meat and sleep!" and rushed on. There

was no resisting such a storm of fighting. Even Valievo, though strongly intrenched, fell after six hours, broken remnants of once proud regiments ran like flurried hares to their old crossing places at Loznitsa and Shabatz. The mountain roads were a litter of dead and wounded, of rifles and knapsacks thrown away, of deserted guns, of ammunition, of stores, of transport wagons.

Still set on victory, the Serbians swung north. The Austrians made a firm stand around Belgrade. But now, not one, but all the Serbian armies were concentrating at this point. Here the Austrians fought bravely, but were forced back, foot by foot, mile by mile.

For two days the Austrians held their lines. It was in vain, the Serbians felt themselves invincible. Old King Peter went to the front with his men. They charged and charged again, into the teeth of the wonderfully well-served Austrian artillery. At last only 10,000 Magyars were left to defend the hill of Torlak, above Belgrade. This was a battle to the death. In the swamps below and in the heights above, man strove with man. The shooting died away. The fight went on in the dark and silence. Men strangled and stabbed and clubbed each other there. As many Serbians fell as Magyars, but when dawn came there was not a Magyar left unwounded on that hill.

Diplomatic Strife in the Balkans.

The third invasion of Serbia was ended, but 100,000 Austrians never recrossed the Drina and Save Rivers. They lay buried—or unburied on Serbian soil or interned in Serbian prison camps. Many died of the virulent epidemic of typhus that swept over Serbia the following summer. It was the worst of the plagues that came during the world war, and in parts of Serbia the death rate was as high as half the entire population. America, among other countries, sent hundreds of thousands of dollars and threw a vast Red Cross force into the work, but they were all too few. The conquest that Austria could not make was done by the hand of disease.

The summer of 1915 in the Balkans was one of diplomatic rather than military strife. Both sides tried to bribe Roumania, both sides tried to bribe Bulgaria, both sides tried to bribe Greece. Serbia was approached by Germany with a quite flattering offer for a separate peace, but she refused to consider it. In August Bulgaria signed a secret Alliance with Germany.

In September General von Mackensen, who had been extraordinarily successful in his Russian operations, was sent down to take charge of the Serbian campaign. For a long time this was unknown. All the German dispatches still continued to associate von Mackensen's name with the Russian operations that the secret of preparation against Serbia might be well kept. The chancelleries of the Allied Powers grew suspiciously alert. On October 1, 1915, reports were sent out that German and Austrian officers were arriving in the Bulgarian capital. On October 3 Russia notified Sofia that friendly relations would be broken off unless all enemy officers left the city within 24 hours. Bulgaria returned no reply. The Russian minister left next day.

But something louder than diplomacy, though not deadlier, was beginning to roar over and near Belgrade. The first shells flew on September 20; German aeroplanes began to appear in the Serbian sky. Day by day the shells grew more numerous and the black-crossed birds of evil omen flew thicker. On October 3, the day that Russia sent an ultimatum to Bulgaria, bombardment in the full sense of the word began and the departure of Russia's minister from Sofia chorded well in its dark augury with the death-storm of high-explosive shell.

Germany Advances on Serbia.

Serbia had defied Austria successfully. Three invasions had failed. She was not to be allowed to defy Germany. Von Mackensen had not planned in vain. Two huge armies faced the Save and the Danube, each of 150,000 men, picked veterans. Over 2,000 big guns had been brought down from Russia, to play their part. On her part, Serbia had not been idle. Nine months of comparative peace had been spent in digging trenches, fortifying positions, storing munitions and training every man able to hold a rifle. Her armies, also, amounted to 300,000 men. If Bulgaria kept out of the fray, the situation was almost equal, for the greater artillery force of the German-Austrian armies would be counterbalanced by the stronger position held by the Serbians. Von Mackensen, however, had the advantage of offering battle at whatever point he chose and therefore could concentrate more men at that point.

On October 5, 1915, the Germans set themselves to destroy Belgrade by long-distance bombardment. They first laid down a curtain

of fire on the further side of the city to prevent the flight of the inhabitants, then shelled the city not only with high-explosive shells but also with inflammatory bombs. The city was set ablaze in a dozen places. On October 6, although two landing parties were killed to a man, the Germans finally crossed near the city. They brought their heavy guns over, raked the river and shattered all defensive works. On October 7 and October 8, the Austrian troops attacking on the west of the city, also secured entrance. Belgrade was taken October 9, but the defending army retreated in good order to solidly built trenches. On the 9th, 10th and 11th, all along the Danube, Save and Drina Rivers, reserves poured over. Serbia was unable to fight on every point at once, and withdrew from the frontier to the fortified lines, which she held in spite of poison gas attacks, liquid fire and all the other ingenuities of horror that German chemists had invented to add to the terrors of war.

Serbia Doomed Through Non-Assistance.

Then, at Serbia's back, without notice, Bulgaria plunged into the fray. For a week, Balkan fighting tactics resumed their old sway. But, day by day, the Bulgars drove the Serbs back, outnumbered two to one, and on October 17 and October 20 they cut the main railroad from Saloniki to Nish at two points. The Serbians retreated to Babuna Pass, north of Uskub, which became known as one of the most heroic stands of the war.

None the less, Serbia was doomed. With the main railroad cut no supplies could make their way up to the Serbs in the north. Von Mackensen drove on slowly, but remorselessly. The Serbs made every advantage they could out of the rocky and rugged character of the ground, but the terrific German artillery fire leveled the trenches. When those were untenable, the Serbs moved back and dug others. The artillery rolled on and commenced the destruction anew. Soon the Serbian artillery found itself short of shells. The Balkan tactics of savage personal onslaught, which had proved so potent during the three earlier Austrian invasions, were useless now. The Germans did not advance until they had made trenches that were sown with machine guns and the machine gun knows no fear. The wild, reckless attacks of the Serbs might have been as destructive, had they reached

the trenches. But they never reached. Shrapnel and machine gun fire answered cold steel.

In the south, Serbia was holding out with marvellous tenacity. The Austrian troops operating to the south, found themselves halted at every point by the Serbs. The Bulgars, gnashing their teeth with rage, could get no farther. And meanwhile, steadily creeping up from the Mediterranean, a small French force sought to overthrow a Bulgarian Army which stood between them and a junction with the Serbs. This army was under General Sarrail, the hero of Verdun. Once, indeed, he got so near as to hear the sound of the Serbian cannon, only ten miles away, in the heroic defense of the Babuna Pass.

Serbia Conquered After Terrific Resistance.

On November 2 the Bulgarian main army, supported by German artillery, opened the attack on Nish, the Serbian capital since the beginning of the war. The city was at that very time decorated with the Allied colors and flags were floating everywhere, for it was expected that a large force of English and French troops would enter the city in a day or two. The French were doing their best. The British were down by Lake Doiran. On November 5 Nish fell, and with it came the surest evidence that all was lost for Serbia. Gen. von Mackensen now controlled all north Serbia, all of western Serbia was in Austrian hands, all of eastern Serbia was in the hands of the Bulgarians, and only a little corner in the south still kept up the heroic resistance.

This centered at Babuna Pass, a point which will go down in history with the Pass of Thermopylae. Five thousand Serbs, without artillery, defied 20,000 Bulgarians, backed by German gunnery. "Day after day and night after night," writes Reynolds, "the little force of Serbians crouched among the deep shadows of the defile, sometimes without food, always under a heavy fire, now and again making the rock cliffs about them echo with bursts of their plaintive national folk-songs. After November 4, 1915, the Bulgarian attacks became more persistent, and their infantry would hurl itself into the pass; then the Serbians would spring up from behind rocks and ledges and throw themselves at their hated kinsmen (they are not kinsmen, however) with naked bayonets, shouting such words in their foe's language as would send the flush of rage burning through the cheeks of men

and make things red before their eyes. Again and again were these sanguinary hand-to-hand struggles enacted under the towering rock walls of those mountains, and again and again were the Bulgarians thrown back."

They heard, every now and again, the sound of the French guns striving to reach them. A wind blowing from the south would seem to bring a promise of victory, a counter-breeze would carry away the hope. Sarrail and his French fought stubbornly and well, but they were few and the Bulgars were many. A stubborn French victory cost 4,000 men, but Bulgarian reënforcements arrived daily. The Serbs could hold Babuna Pass no longer and fell back on Prilep. And, steadily, Austrian armies, German armies and Bulgarian armies rolled on step by step. The Serbs now had no ammunition, no food. Winter lay chill on the high hills. On November 20, 1915, the last Serb force left Serbian land, not to return until the last year of the war.

It was a blow of terrible portent to the allies. The main railroad from Berlin to Constantinople was open. German munitions and German troops could go to Turkey. Teuton lands stretched from the North Sea to the Dardanelles. The great goal of Pan-Germanism was in sight. Suez was threatened. The Holy Land awaited the rule of the Mailed Fist. Asia Minor, with all her riches, lay open for exploitation. The line to Bagdad could be rushed to completion, and India was menaced. All this and more was contained in the news that the French could not reach Babuna Pass and that Serbia, as Serbia, was no more. She was a conquered land, with not an inch of her soil remaining to her people.

CHAPTER XI.

FIGHTING ON THE ROOF OF EUROPE.

Italy's Entrance Into the War—Strategic Passes Into Austria—The Dolomites—The Battles of the Isonzo —Aerial Railways in the Julian Alps—The Bridgehead of Goritzia—The Carso—Feats of the Bersaglieri—The Dead-Line to Trieste.

THE diplomatic reasons which lay behind Italy's severance with the "Unholy Alliance" and the question of "Italia Irredenta," together with the political civil war which raged over the question of neutrality, are to be found in a later chapter in this book. Condensed into a couple of phrases it may be said that Italy entered the war officially because "the independence of Serbia was considered by Italy as essential to Balkan equilibrium" and because while admitting some concessions in the Trentino, "the Austro-Hungarian government persisted in its opposition to all our other demands, especially those regarding the boundary of the Isonzo, Trieste and the islands."

The Italian-Austrian frontier as it was at the opening of the war may be divided into five parts: The Rhaetian Alps from the Swiss border to the lower Trentino, with the passes near the Swiss border; the lower Trentino, where the mountains slope down toward the plain; the eastern side of the Trentino or the Dolomite Alps; facing toward Vienna, the inaccessible heights of the Carnic Alps; and facing toward the Balkans the foothills of the Julian Alps with the Isonzo River running between the Italian border and the high ridge which runs down to Fiume. War between Austria and Italy, therefore, confined itself of necessity to mountain actions for the control of the passes through these rugged regions. Modern war requires modern artillery, which is enormously heavy in itself and which requires a constant supply of heavy shells. The Italian War, therefore, was different in its character and manner of operation from that of any other part of the battle front.

On May 24, 1915, Italy's declaration of war against Austria-Hungary became effective. Austria retorted by aerial bombardment of Venice and the next day five Italian armies attacked the Austrian

frontier at five different points. Commencing near the Adriatic, one army struck out along the railway to Monfalcone and succeeded in capturing that important point on June 10. Monfalcone being an important railway junction and the seat of the electrical works which operate the light and power of the great Austrian port of Trieste, its seizure was of the highest importance.

Next to the north, another Italian army invaded Austria by the Udine-Cormons Railroad and by June 4 had succeeded in gaining possession of the heights near the fortified city of Goritzia. A third army, striking in at the southernmost pass of the Carnic Alps, was faced by a strong Austrian army near Tolmina, and the first serious battle on that front occurred on June 7, 1915. A fourth army, in the extreme north, swept the Austrians from Monte Croce and seized Feikofel.

Sharp Fighting Between Italians and Austrians.

In the Trentino, as the southern part of the Austrian territory is called, where it dips like a triangle into Italy, a fifth army advanced unchecked until June 17, when it found itself confronted by a strong line of fortifications between Rovereto and Mori. On the same day the armies advancing on the Isonzo River were brought to a sudden halt by an elaborate series of Austrian entrenchments, holding that river.

By the end of July the Italian-Austrian conflict had advanced sufficiently to show that Goritzia was the Verdun of that whole campaign. The Italian charges on the fortified lines on the Isonzo and the entrenched camps of Goritzia were as desperate as the mass-drives of the Germans against the Rheims-Verdun-Toul line. Moreover, the defences of the Isonzo were tenfold stronger than any point on the western front.

Approximately thirty important outpost positions were stormed during June and July, and August 1 found the Italians firmly established at several points on the east of the Isonzo River. The main defenses of Goritzia and Trieste were as yet untaken, and the main Austrian line of defense remained intact. The Austrian losses had been far heavier than the Italian, although the latter had taken the offensive.

So picturesque was this fighting that one is tempted to stop and give incidents. Only one will be given, chosen by the writer because it portrays the wide difference between the fighting in this theatre of war and others which have been described. On the western front

the battles began with mass drives and afterwards turned to trench warfare; in the Balkans, irregular hand-to-hand mêlées were frequent. In the Dolomites, Alpine and Carso plateau fighting, there was far more of individual warfare and brilliant feats by small groups. It called for the high-hearted courage which Italian soldiers know so well to display.

The incident in question was the capture of the peak of Zellenkoffel, a most important observation point for the direction of firing, but supposedly inaccessible. After the Austrians had lost Freikofel and Cresta Verde it became urgent to seize Zellenkoffel, on which the Austrians, with terrible difficulty—even though not under fire—had succeeded in establishing an observation post. It was held by forty men. This was deemed sufficient force for the reason that the entire slope of the peak—it would be nearer the truth to say the sheer precipice of the peak—was swept by machine gun fire.

Tyroleans Execute Marvelous Deeds.

On the night of July 3, however, twenty-nine men, every one of them trained Alpine climbers, among them eighteen Alpine guides, who had spent their lives leading climbing parties up the most dangerous summits of the Alps, undertook the dislodgment of the Austrians on Zellenkoffel. They were roped. In the black dark, without showing a light or making a sound, the twenty-nine Alpinists climbed the thousand feet sheer. Not only that, but they actually pulled a machine gun up with them.

The extraordinary daring of this mountain work was by no means confined to the Italians. The Tyroleans covered themselves with equal glory. The story of how a hundred Tyroleans cut an ice tunnel through the Monte Adamelle glacier in mid-July and seized the Tonale Pass ranks with the greatest of the Italian marvels. Both Austrian and Italian engineers and artillerists worked wonders in bringing to the top of supposed impassable mountains huge guns and howitzers, weighing over a ton. Beside such extraordinary examples of the miracles to be done by human power unaided by machinery, the building of the Pyramids of Egypt sinks into insignificance.

The entire autumn and winter of 1915-1916 saw little change in the situation so far as great gains of territory were concerned. Six months' fighting in the Trentino had demonstrated that no fur-

ther advance could be made there by Italy. Even if the Adige Pass were taken, with the enormous loss of life it would require, other passes lay behind, and still further north was the famous Brenner Pass which Austria could undoubtedly hold for ever. Along the Carnic Alps, on the northern frontier, the condition was practically the same.

This left the Isonzo section as the one point against which all Italian efforts should best be directed, and similarly, on which all Austrian defensive tactics should be maintained. The battlefront, so far, had changed to little advantage on either side, except at Isonzo, where Italy had bitten in at two points toward the great defensive barriers of the Julian Alps. On the other hand, the Isonzo, though the most vulnerable point, was of disheartening difficulty. None the less, unless the Goritzia defenses of the Isonzo were taken, it would not be safe for Italy to make an attack on Trieste.

Goritzia Much Desired by the Italian Army.

Goritzia is at the northern end of an oval plateau, north from which the Isonzo River enters a canyon. On the Italian side of the northern end of this oval stands the spur of Podgoro, which changed hands four times during that winter. Overlooking the bridgehead is the important height of Oslavia, which the Italians won in December, 1915, lost in January, gained again towards the end of January and lost the month after. In the early winter the heights on the Italian, southern, end of this oval, San Michele and San Martine di Carso, also came into Italian hands. The whole of the opposite side of the oval, forming the line of the Julian Mountains, was never in danger. The Austrians held powerful trench and commanding artillery positions all the time. Bombardments were continuous and without cessation. Both sides constantly strove to gain the advantage on this mountain slope or that. But all this time Goritzia remained in Austrian hands.

Italian strategy, originally, had counted on the help of Serbia. The plan had been first, a checking of Austrian invasion at the mountain passes; and second, a quick sweep into Istria and Dalmatia, with the occupation of the ports from which and by means of which the Italian armies purposed to join Serbia and invade Hungary. All this plan was negatived by the strength of the Austrian defenses at Goritzia and the Julian Alps.

The winter campaigns of 1915-1916 were attended with extraordinary difficulties. When the snows thawed in the spring, revealing layer upon layer of bodies, deposited on the snow in successive attacks; layer upon layer of ever newly-built barricades, all sinking with the melting snow into an appalling tangle of barbed wire, stakes and human remains, it was difficult to imagine that such conditions could be surpassed on any part of the battlefronts. Fortunately, most fortunately for Italy, the strong clear air of the mountains carried off disease.

The Italians Lose the Hard-Fought-for Trentino.

The deadlock continued until May, 1916, with gains alternating on both sides, but in that month the Austrians concentrated all their forces for a drive in the Trentino region. The concentration of the bombardment began on May 15, 1916, and the town of Asiago was shelled from long-range shots fired from a 15-inch naval gun. The Alpine troops, suffering heavily under the bombardment of the trenches, charged forward three times, but the old story of human effort against machine guns brough the same old answer. The loss of life was enormous. The Austrian infantry charged also with great gallantry, and in far greater number than the Italian. They lost heavily also, but the preponderant masses of the Austrians were so great that the Italians had to abandon their lines.

The Italians were driven from their positions, hurled back from the advance they had made into Austria and forced down the hillsides, fighting for every yard of earth. By the end of the first week of the drive, all that the Italians had gained by a year's fighting in the Trentino was lost. On and down plunged the Austrians, with a terrible concentration of artillery until the Italian frontier was reached and crossed. By May 26, 1916, two Austrian armies were sweeping down into Italy, one attacking Arsiero, the other threatening Vicenza through Schio. By June 1 Asiago was evacuated by the Italians and the defenders took up a last position on the hills to the east. The Austrian advance now menaced the entire Venetian plain.

It was a crucial week, the first week of June, for, in order that the drive into the plain might be continued, the Austrians must forego the enormous advantage affording by their position of coming down the hill. They must begin to fight in the open. The result was the

adoption of Berlin tactics, rather than those of Vienna, namely, mass drives against trenches. But, as occurred over and over again in the world war, offensives of the mass drive character possess extraordinary potency only at the beginning, so long as they are under the protection of the vast curtains of fire. Heavy artillery, however, can never keep pace with the drive, and hence an offensive is compelled to slow up after a certain ratio of advance.

This was exactly what happened in the Austrian advance from the Trentino. Austrian assaults on Italian positions on June 6 and 7 were repulsed with heavy loss. The Austrian offensive had then gained 35,000 prisoners and 300 cannon, the latter a heavy blow to Italian efficiency. Casualties on the Italian side were placed at 80,000 men. But the drive had spent its force. Posina, Arsiero and Asiago were within Austrian grasp, but the offensive lacked the driving force to grasp them securely. Vincenza was only twenty miles away, but those twenty miles were as unreachable as though the distance had been two hundred.

The Tunnel of Monte Sabotino.

The Italians counter-attacked furiously. Austrian consolidation, though good, was insufficient to do more than check the Italian offensive. It would only confuse the reader to treat of this counter-offensive, peak by peak, suffice it to say that between June 15 and August 15, 1916, the Italians regained nearly all the territory that they had lost during the Austrian offensive, and once more established themselves on strategic positions which defended the Venetian plain. The new battle line on that frontier was, on an average, not more than a mile or two from the frontier of Italy.

Naturally, the Austrian offensive in the Trentino was synchronized with an Austrian offensive on the Isonzo, near Goritzia. In the latter campaign, however, the Austrians had no success. They lost many men and gained only a few minor heights. Naturally, also, the success of the responding Italian offensive would be paralleled with an offensive on Goritzia, to keep the Austrians engaged at both ends of the line at the same time. This was remarkably successful, resulting in the fall of Goritzia.

During the summer a tunnel 838 feet long had been drilled in the solid rock through Monte Sabotino, without a hint of the operations

having reached the Austrians. Suddenly, early in the morning of August 6 the end of this tunnel was blasted clear and the opening vomited Italian soldiers. Men darted to every point of the mountain and set on fire the dry scrubby undergrowth. Masked by the low rolling smoke of the burning bushes, the Italians swarmed into and stormed the intricate series of tunnels, trenches and galleries which the Austrians had constructed on Monte Sabotino. The whole position, deemed impregnable, was taken in twenty minutes, even before the full measure of the offensive had become known to the Austrian command. It was a lightning stroke and gave the Italians immediate command of a powerful gun position. Every detail had been worked out in advance, and with the capture of Monte Sabotino, the tunnel swarmed with batteries as ants rush out of a hole made in an ant-hill. By noon, the western bank of the Isonzo was untenable for the Austrians, and, in one wild and victorious rush, supported by their artillery rapidly falling into place on Monte Sabotino, the Italians rushed Monte San Michele and secured absolute artillery control of the Goritzia bridgehead. Three days' fighting had gained them the territory for which they had fought more than a year in vain.

Steady Advancement of the Italians.

On August 9, 1916, occurred one of the most hotly contested battles in the whole world war, the fight on the bridge over the Isonzo at Goritzia. It was a breathless whirlwind of attack, so furious that the opposing regiments were all entangled in each other. Horse, foot and artillery fought in confusion. At last the Austrians broke and Goritzia fell into Italian hands. To the north a similar violent offensive carried the Italians within gunfire of the important point of Tolmino, but they could reach no further, nor did they shell the town.

A winter marked by heavy snows put a stop to all big offensives from either side. Not a week passed without a minor engagement, of course, for in all mountain fighting, as has been shown, sometimes a small attack by a few men will succeed in gaining a height of great importance, either as an observation point, or, even more often, as a point from which cables may be stretched for an aërial railway, either to bring up provisions and shells or to send down wounded for hospital care in the valleys below.

These aërial railways, like spiders' webs flung from peak to peak,

were the Italian highways of the war. Italian engineers are rightly accounted among the greatest in the world. Americans have not always realized that the standard of technical training in French and Italian universities is far and away higher than in German. A degree from Milan is worth three times as much as one from Heidelberg.

The spring thaws of 1917 stopped fighting for nearly a month. It was not until the middle of May that hostilities recommenced on a large scale. May 14, 1917, brought about a somewhat curious situation. So heavy was the bombardment that day that it presupposed the beginning of an Austrian offensive. The Italian commanders, however, had also planned an offensive on that day.

Determining to take the bull by the horns, the Italians were thrown forward in the very fury of this terrific fire. This high-hearted audacity gained its reward. Unprepared for fierce infantry assault, four separate heights, which were supposed to be impregnable, were rushed by the Italians. It only took the Austrians forty-eight hours, however, to stiffen their resistance to such effect that the Italian drive was stopped. Twelve batteries of British artillery aided in this advance, which was resumed three days later and continued in a tornado of fury for a fortnight.

Several Important Events That Happened.

The result was the same as the preceding autumn. The Italians advanced steadily and repulsed all counter-attacks. A most sensational attack on a famous Austrian position at Castagnievizza resulted in the capture of a main highway supplying the Austrian lines and also four strategic heights of commanding importance. But, by this time, the force of the Italian blow was weakening. Austrian counter-attacks began to show gains. South of Jamiano, the Italians were driven back, and during June the whole character of the battle operations in the Goritzia and Carso sectors was devoted to a straightening and strengthening of the line. On the Trentino, likewise, artillery duels consumed the energies of both sides.

Meanwhile, several important events had happened in the world war as a whole. Russia had gone to pieces. Greece was swinging to the Allies. Roumania had made up her mind to go against the Central Powers—and had suffered for it. Biggest and most important of all in its moral effect, the United States had declared war on Germany

and the Teuton High Command was beginning to realize that it might not be all "a bluff."

The Asiatic nations, Bulgaria and Turkey, were beginning to wonder whether they had not picked the wrong horse to win. If Germany was to hold her allies in the Balkans and the Near East, it was necessary to secure another sweeping victory. To do so in the west had proved impossible, and, in any case, the influence in the Near East would be more potent if the victory were nearer home.

Serbia had defied Austria until Germany undertook the campaign. Italy had defied Austria. Obviously, therefore, Germany must enter the campaign. From many points of view, but especially that of its effect on the Near East, Germany's next move must be a drive at Italy. With Treachery as her herald, Germany struck, and struck hard.

CHAPTER XII.

THE HEROIC DEFENSE OF THE PIAVE.

Sudden Smashing Descent of the Invaders Into the Italian Plains—Propaganda and Treachery—Venice Threatened—A Human Barrier to the Guns—Allied Rush to the Support—Italian Mastery of the Air—Collapse of Austria—Heights Re-won by Sheer Gallantry.

FOR two years the world had stood amazed at Italy's relentless struggle on the Alpine heights and her feats of daring had become proverbial. Even when the Austrians had descended from the Trentino, she had succeeded in driving them back up the mountains with a loss of 80,000 men. Suddenly, with a fall that shook the Allied cause to its foundations, the Italian line broke and went to pieces. The Germans and Austrians plunged down into the plain and for some weeks the issue as to whether Italy would be overrun by the Teutons trembled in the balance.

Such a disaster could not come without sharp and definite causes. These causes were three in number, propaganda, treachery and overconfidence. Space is scant to go into the details of each of these, but a word or two must be said.

German propaganda was the first force. For nearly a year the Italian troops on the Tolmino front had not been changed. It was known that the Italian plan of attack was southwards from Goritzia rather than northwards through Tolmino. This sector was generally quiet. The Italians had begun to fraternize with the Austrians. Seeing this, Germany and Austria drafted numbers of agents as soldiers in the Austrian lines with instructions to spread socialistic doctrines among the Italians. The crisis of this propaganda arrived when the Austrians printed forged copies of newspapers purporting to be the daily papers of Naples and Genoa, containing reports of socialist riots in those cities and of British troops, summoned to restore order, firing on defenseless women and children in the streets.

The treacherous part in the demoralization of the Italian armies was done by the Camorrists. The Camorra, as is well known, is the

most important political agency in Italy, a secret society with a sinister reputation, strongly inclined towards socialism, anarchy and pacificism. There is not a city in Italy that has not one or more branches of the Camorra, not a political party in which its agents are not found, not a branch of Italian life in any class that is unaffected. The Camorrists are fecund material for the growth of Bolshevism in Italy. They played their part in destroying the morale of the war-weary soldiers.

Defeat of the Second and Third Italian Armies.

On Sunday, October 21, a heavy artillery fire began on the Plezzo-Tolmino front. Italian artillery observers soon recognized that the shells were mainly German rather than Austrian. Under cover of this bombardment, the Austrian regiments which had been fraternizing with the Italians were removed and German shock troops, fresh, rested and well-prepared, were substituted. On October 24, with unexpected abruptness, the Germans charged. The Second Italian Army, utterly demoralized, gave way at once. Some regiments fled, some threw down their arms and surrendered without fighting. They expected to find Austrian brother-socialists, they found German fighting men instead.

Through the huge hole made by the failure of the Second Army, the Germans, supported by Austrians, burst in huge numbers. The line was not driven back. It was pierced. It is to be remembered that a battle line pierced is in a desperate case, for the armies on either side of the gap are immediately flanked, and a flanked army can be eaten up at leisure. This piercing tactics put the Germans to flank and rear of the Third Italian Army, which had fought heroically inch by inch for Goritzia and the Carso plateau. All that gain had to be abandoned in a moment, or the army would be trapped and annihilated.

The retreat of the Third Army ranks with the great military retreats of the war. "The enemy maintained his terrific fire upon the Italian communications," wrote a spectator, "so that the troops withdrew into the tornado of shells of every kind that makes a hell of war. Gas shells loosed vapors that haunted the roads invisibly; acid shells set the men suddenly gasping and strangling; tear-producing shells half blinded them. Nothing could have brought them help but the dozen rear-guard actions roaring and flaming at their heels, and superb and long-confirmed discipline."

It was a masterly retreat, but none the less it was a terrible one. On October 27 the Italians saw that it was hopeless to try and hold any part of the line. On October 28 the Austrian-German armies took Goritzia. On October 30 Udine, which had been the Italian General Headquarters, fell into enemy hands, and the Austrians were pushing forward hard. Between them and Venice lay three rivers, the Tagliamento, the Livenza, and the Piave, all running from the Alps to the sea. South of Venice flowed the Brenta River, running into the Dolomites north of Asiago. Any one of these rivers might be taken up as new defense lines by the Italians.

On November 1 the Italians halted on the Tagliamento, and established a defense line, as strong as the rapid preparations would allow. But it could not be held. Too many guns had been left behind in the retreat. The army itself was only making connections with difficulty. The armies to the north, in the Venetian Alps, finding themselves being flanked, had to surrender their long-held strategic natural fortresses and descend into the plain.

Germans and Austrians Held by Piave Defenses.

The Tagliamento line could not be maintained. On November 6 the Germans and Austrians crossed in at least forty points, several Italian detachments being cut off. By November 8 the whole line of the Tagliamento was in German hands, and the number of prisoners taken since the beginning of the rout on October 24 had reached the appalling number of 250,000. Over two thousand guns had been captured, a large proportion of Italy's heavy artillery. At this point a change was made in the Italian command, General Diaz replacing General Cadorna. It was Diaz's plan not to attempt to hold the River Livenza, which had few natural advantages, but to fall back on the third line, the River Piave.

The second phase of the German invasion of Italy began with three simultaneous drives, one by frontal attack on the lower Piave, one by rear attack from the Trentino to Asiago and the third down the Cadore River (a tributary of the Piave) on the city of Belluno. As always, these drives began with successes. Asiago was taken on November 10. Belluno fell on November 11. But when, on November 12, the Austrian-German armies made a united attack and tried to pierce the Italian line at Feltre, where the River Piave turns, they were thrown back

with heavy losses. Neither was the frontal attack signally successful. On November 13, indeed, the enemy crossed the Piave near Zenson, nineteen miles from Venice but, as a whole, the line resisted. The next day saw the fall of Feltre, menacing the whole Piave line.

Reënforcements, however, were arriving hourly. Some of the crack French regiments were hurried to the Italian front and the British sent battery after battery of artillery. The lower reaches of the Piave were deliberately flooded, and part of the battleground took on a curious resemblance to the inundated lands near Ypres. By this time the Italian troops realized that the single army which had momentarily failed in its trust had been decoyed by lies and treachery. Moreover, they were defending their own soil, and they had abundant evidence of Allied help.

Venice Saved From the Hun.

Like a miracle, the small remaining part of the spirit of disaffection was exorcised and fighting blood ran hot. The Austrians and the Germans hurled their men against the Piave defenses as they had at Verdun—and with the same result. They could not pass. They did succeed in establishing two menacing salients, one on the Brenta River near Valstagna, the other on Monte Tomba, controlling a crossing of the Piave. The French drove back the Germans at the former point on January 20-23, 1918, and the Italians wrenched the Austrians from the height above the river on January 28-31. All the while the sound of distant shots could be heard in Venice and the bombing aeroplanes of the Central Powers sent load after load of explosive into the ancient city, for the impure joy of destruction.

There was no early spring offensive by the Austrians for one good reason. Germany had found, time and again, that Austrian offensives alone were of little value. Even Serbia had driven Austria away. An Italian offensive must be German and Austrian combined. Germany could have no troops to spare for Italy unless she were successful on the western front. If successful there, then a drive would be made—not on the Piave, but west of the Trentino, in order to get at the metallurgical centre there, for Germany was desperately in need of metals. If unsuccessful, then the offensive would be a local Austrian affair, at some point into the Venetian plain. The Asiago Plateau was one of the chief points chosen.

On June 15, 1918, the Austrians attacked. They were repulsed at once. The British on the Asiago Plateau, the French at Monte Grappa and the Italians at other points resisted stoutly. The Austrians claimed 30,000 prisoners and 120 guns for the three days of the offensive, a puny result (even when thus exaggerated) compared with the announced goal which was "the conquest of the Italian plain." "We expected you to put Italy out of the war," was the Kaiser's order to Emperor Karl.

Italy then counter-attacked. Torrential rains aided the Italians, for the flooded Piave swept away the Austrian bridges and enabled Italian monitors to come up the river and add naval guns to the fight. On June 22 the Italian, French and British armies advanced all along the line. By July 5 there were 300,000 casualties recorded for the Austrians and on July 6 the Italians drove the last Austrian across the Piave. All along the line strategic points were stormed and taken. And then on, from day to day, up that dreaded Alpine stairway climbed the invader, always with the advantage of position, but never again to make a foot of advance. July and September saw Venice further and further from the menace of the Hun.

Allied Forces Drive Austrians Out of Italy.

Meantime, Germany's last offensive at Rheims and Chateau-Thierry had come. It had come and it had gone. It had found the Stars and Stripes among the banners on the battle line. If the American troops in the battle line were an obstacle, the millions drilling was a threat far more potent. It was the mass of men in uniform, those in the United States as well as those in Picardy and Champagne, which lamed the German drive. Each day's news in October told more and more clearly how Germany was slipping, slipping, on the brink of crushing defeat. No more reënforcements for Austria now!

And then the thunderbolt!

On October 24, thanks largely to united command, a terrific attack was made all along the line. The Italians drove at Monte Grappa, between the Brenta and Piave Rivers; the French, with British artillery, attacked on the Asiago Plateau; the British, with Italian and British naval support, attacked on the Lower Piave. In the great drive fifty-one Italian divisions, three British divisions, two French

divisions, one Czecho-Slovak division and one lone American regiment attacked sixty-three Austro-Hungarian divisions.

The drive began with terrific vim. On the first day 3,000 prisoners were taken; on the second, 10,000, and on the third, 30,000. By October 30 Monte Grappa had been captured, 33,000 prisoners being seized at that point alone. This cut the Austrian lines in two, and the Italians took full revenge for the preceding autumn, when their line had been pierced. The Austrians fled in confusion. From a rout it became a helter-skelter flight. On November 3 Trent had been taken and the Italians were in Udine. Chiefest of all, the Italians had secured their great goal throughout the war. They were in Trieste and the last Austrian was driven from Italian soil.

Austria threw up her hands. Already, on October 27, when the drive was only three days old, Emperor Karl had ordered a military capitulation to General Diaz. On October 29 an Austrian captain came forward from the trenches with a white flag. On his rank becoming known he was curtly bidden to return. The Italian generals would deal only with properly accredited Austrian generals. On October 30 General von Weber led forward a party of eight naval and military officers under a flag of truce. Finally, on November 3 General Diaz signed the armistice, to go into effect at 3 o'clock, November 4, 1918. Austria was out of the war. Turkey had surrendered four days before, Germany was to surrender a week later.

Italy's military part in the war had been of vital importance to the Allies. She had stoutly kept the Germans and Austrians from penetrating France by the southern door. She had compelled Austria to maintain a very long and costly line from Switzerland to the sea. She had taken hundreds of thousands of Austrian prisoners and forced the employment of an average of 1,500,000 Austrian troops on the Italian front, troops which might have turned the tide of battle in the west on some of the many occasions when the Allied line was stretched to its uttermost. Besides which, Italy had sent troops to the western front to the Monastir campaign. Stubbornly and gallantly she maintained her right to be classed as one of the "Big Four" among the powers of the world who fought to save civilization from the blood-stained hand of the Hun.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE HAIR TRIGGER OF SALONIKI.

Civil War Questions in Greece—Port Desired by Germans as a Submarine Base—King Constantine and Venezilos—Practical Impossibility of Transport Conditions—Fighting in Macedonia—Establishment of Allied Supply Bases—Final Collapse of Bulgaria.

THE Saloniki campaign commenced by being one of the great Allied disappointments of the war. Begun hastily in the hope of coming to the relief of Serbia, and begun too late, it was an utter failure at the start. It remained for two years a question of heart-burnings and trouble and only toward the end did it justify its existence. Few people, except military and diplomatic officials, realized its importance or the part it played, still less did the public realize, in the military quiescence of Saloniki, how difficult a part the garrison had there to play.

Why were Allied troops sent to Saloniki in September and October of 1915? The answer to this question will go far to explain the complicated issues which revolved around that all-important sea-coast town of Macedonia, which has become one of the greatest fortified places of the world, a second Verdun or Gibraltar.

First of all, Allied troops were sent to Saloniki to march north therefrom to the relief of Serbia, which had been invaded from the south by Bulgarian and German-Bulgarian armies, at the same time that it had been invaded on the north by a German Army and on the west by an Austrian Army. The history of Serbia's place in the war has been told in an earlier chapter. It will be remembered that on September 30 the bombardment of Belgrade by the Germans was in progress, that on October 3, the German invasion of Serbia began, and that, on October 13, the Bulgarians entered Serbian territory and stabbed their neighbors in the back. Compare these dates with the landings of Allied troops. The first French detachment landed on September 30, a British and French Division arrived on October 5; General Sarrail arrived on October 12, and the first advance was made October 14.

It was just one day after Serbia was beleaguered on all sides that the Allies started to aid her. This first hopeless thrust was the first phase of the Saloniki campaign.

On November 20 the Serbian Army gave up its last vain hope and began that desperate and awful march over the snow-covered and pathless mountains of Albania to try and reach the sea. The half-wild dogs of the neighborhood formed generally their only food. The Albanians, frankly or secretly hostile, refused food to the Serbians on their arrival and shot them from behind on their departure. It was a ghastly march. It was worse than Napoleon's return from Moscow. Those who did not find dogs to devour were found by dogs who devoured them. Many men went mad. More became so crippled from frost-bite, starvation and exposure that even though they reached the Adriatic, they never recovered.

Impregnable Defenses Created at Saloniki.

Yet, in this state, in order to escape the Austrians they were compelled to march from Scutari to Valona, dysentery-ridden every one, and in a state of feebleness that passes description. They died by scores in muddy places in the road, not having strength to lift their feet, and though the Allies fed them on the way, put ferries across the rivers, and in hundreds of cases carried the men on their backs, it was a wan and ghostly 130,000 men who finally reached Valona and were shipped to the island of Corfu to rest and recuperate.

The second stage in the Saloniki campaign was the transformation of that somewhat desolate spot on the Aegean sea as a great intrenched camp in the very heart of the Balkans. It was made more difficult by the intrigues of the Greeks, enemies of the most treacherous sort, all the more dangerous because secret. Incredible labor and millions of dollars were spent in the creation of impregnable defenses, constructed not for this war alone, a fact in itself so remarkable that one well may pause to ask why the Allies considered it worth while to make a new Gibraltar of Saloniki.

There were many cogent diplomatic reasons. Saloniki has a good harbor, and forms an excellent naval base. It possesses the only railroad line running north to tap the Vienna-Constantinople Railway. It is within reach of the important point of Monastir. It is handy to Constantinople. In the event of German or Bulgarian ambi-

tions towards the Near East it would be a serious thorn in the side of such a project. Above all, it is one of the chief keys to the interior of the Balkans which are not approachable from the Adriatic Sea save by a few almost inaccessible passes through high and rugged mountains. It opens the Vardar Gate.

Saloniki became necessary to British protection of Suez and India when the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway almost was realized. Great Britain made Saloniki the Gibraltar of the Balkans. With England's navy, it could never be taken from the sea; it would be at least as difficult as Verdun to capture from the land side. No matter what happened on the western front, Saloniki was one sure anchor in the stormy seas of Near East politics.

Roumania Declares War on Austria-Hungary.

The most trenchant question during the summer of 1916, when this huge intrenched camp had been constructed under conditions of perfect peace, not a shot having been fired at it, was the question of Roumania. The Allies were doing their best to bring Roumania in as their ally, the Central Powers were doing their utmost to keep her neutral. General Sarrail was eager to clinch the matter by a successful offensive up the Vardar River Valley. He was ready for the drive, but Roumania dilly-dallied for weeks. Whereupon, Bulgaria decided to influence Roumania to the other side by a successful offensive on her part, and, having accurate knowledge of the Allied movements from the Greeks—who always double-crossed both sides—the Bulgarians attacked from the west on August 17, 1916. The Serbs holding that sector were beaten back as far as Lake Ostrovo, but, by August 22, the French troops who had been waiting for the moment to start on Sarrail's offensive, had come to the aid of the Serbs and all future Bulgar attacks were repulsed. This timely aid given, Sarrail advanced on the Vardar and captured a number of strategic positions from the Bulgars on August 22, while a strong counter-attack on the Struma was beaten back, the next day.

These Allied successes had their effect. On August 27 Roumania declared war against Austria-Hungary and commenced the invasion of Transylvania, in the manner described in the next chapter. This was a political move, and a wise one in the event of success; it was not a military move and a most unhappy one in the event of failure.

A powerful southern concentration, to take the Bulgars in the rear, would have strengthened the Allies immensely and given a relief to Serbia which might have staved off the fall of the nation long enough to enable the Allies to reach the beleaguered country in time to be of real assistance.

Roumania thought only of herself and depended on the help of Russia. The outcome was disastrous. The fall of Serbia, the conquest of southern Roumania and the isolation of the Allies at Saloniki were the result of lack of teamwork in the Balkans in the autumn of 1916. The Central Powers had a common plan, the Allies had none. This lack of a plan was heightened by the treachery of Russia.

Macedonia a Desert Land.

The entrance of Roumania, although mishandled from a military point of view, was a great heartener for the Serbs, who had ever considered that their reward from the war should be possession of Macedonia, that central battleground of the Balkans which is claimed alike by Serbia, Bulgaria, Greece, Turkey and Albania. Macedonia, roughly, is that piece of land included in the Turkish vilayets of Saloniki, Monastir and Kossovo. It is about the same size as Belgium, Holland and Denmark together, and had at the time of this war a population of over 2,000,000, about one-half Bulgarian stock, one-quarter Turkish and the remainder divided between Serb, Albanian and Greek. To the Serbs the city of Monastir was one of their chief goals, and accordingly, with Allied help, a drive was made, resulting in the capture of Monastir, November 17, 1916, just a year after the crumpled Serbian army was making its dreadful way to the coast after the conquest of their country.

In December, 1916, the French entering Koritza reproclaimed the independent Republic of Koritza or Albania. That established a complication. A word or two may be said about Albania. It was created by the Conference of London in 1913, after the Balkan Wars and made a principality under the Prince of Wied. During a revolution in May, 1914 (before the opening of the world war) the German Prince was driven out, a republic proclaimed and Essad Pasha made President. In September, 1914, Albania declared war on the Austrians, and throughout the war Essad Pasha remained a loyal ally of the Entente, flying his nation's flag in Saloniki while his Albanian army

of 600 men was brigaded with the French. Valona was occupied by the Italians.

The principal issue of importance during 1917 was the enforced abdication of King Contantine of Greece on June 12, 1917. In one of the later chapters of this book, dealing with political and diplomatic affairs in Greece the significance of this abdication is told in detail. From a military point of view it was of value since it added the Greek Army to that of the Allies, but it was of greater value in that it set to rest the constant fear that the Greek armies would knife the Allies in the back.

A New Battle Front Established.

At about the same time, Austria announced the independence of the whole of Albania under Austrian protection, on March 9, 1917; and on June 3, 1917, Italy proclaimed recognition of "the unity and independence of the whole of Albania, under the shield and protection of the Italian Kingdom," thus supplementing the provisional republic of Koritza or Albania, proclaimed by the French at Koritza. It may be mentioned that Italy's action was somewhat disingenuous, as in her secret treaty signed with the Allies before entering the war, the partitioning of Albania had been agreed upon.

The arrival of the United States into the war in 1917 and the elimination of Russia and Roumania turned the attention of the Allies away from the problems of Serbia and Albania. The concentration of forces needed on the western front precluded the sending of any large army to Saloniki at that time.

When the spring of 1918 made movements possible in Saloniki, however, a new face had come over the war. Instead of the promises of American troops, the soldiers themselves were beginning to arrive; instead of mere threats in Mesopotamia, triumphs were being recorded. There was no longer a Russian front, but there was a Bulgarian-Austrian front, facing the Italian occupation of Avlona on the Adriatic Sea and also facing Saloniki on the Aegean Sea, reaching inland, in this latter case, beyond Monastir.

Action on this front began on May 31, 1918, when Greek troops advanced and captured strong positions on the Struma River. A counter-attack on a Serb sector a week later was repulsed with heavy loss. The Allies had been on the ground too long for any of their

defensive lines to be taken. Moreover, they had accumulated vast stores of supplies and munitions, they had built railroads, they had made highways, they had constructed stone bridges and were prepared to push the kind of campaign which two years before had been impossible because of the character of the ground to be covered.

During June, the final snows being off the mountains and the spring mud having become only of normal depth, the Allies from the east and the Italians and French from the west commenced to extend their lines. On July 6, the Albanian campaign opened, on July 9 the heights near Pohani were carried and on July 10-11, after some sharp fighting, the Allies linked up a mile 210 miles long from Saloniki to the Adriatic Sea. A new battle-front had been established.

Aim of the Saloniki Campaign Achieved.

A battle-front is a very different thing from attacks radiating out from two centers. It is a menace. Once this line was forced, if it were strong enough not to be pierced, it could advance steadily. With thousands of transport mules, with the most modern mountain motor transports, with mountain batteries, with Italian skill in handling supplies by aerial railways, the campaign proceeded swiftly through the Albanian mountains. Meanwhile, British and Greek detachments, operating from the powerful base of Saloniki, were in a position to push north also. On July 15, the main Austrian defense line was reached, and a deep salient was driven in at Meran. On July 21, Point Iozi, a commanding strategical barrier, was taken. In August, further advance was made.

The Bulgarian smash began on September 15. The whole Bulgarian front from Lake Doiran to the Vardar Valley fell almost at once, a line which had remained unbroken since the autumn of 1915. French, Serbian and Jugo-Slav troops led the drive. On September 16, the first and second line positions fell. The Bulgarians were unready to withstand such a concentration of artillery as now faced them, still less were their transport conditions such as those that the Allies had built up in two long years of preparation.

It only took two days more to pierce the third line positions and on September 18, a huge gap was broken in the Bulgarian line, northeast of Monastir, leaving the road open for an advance into Bulgaria.

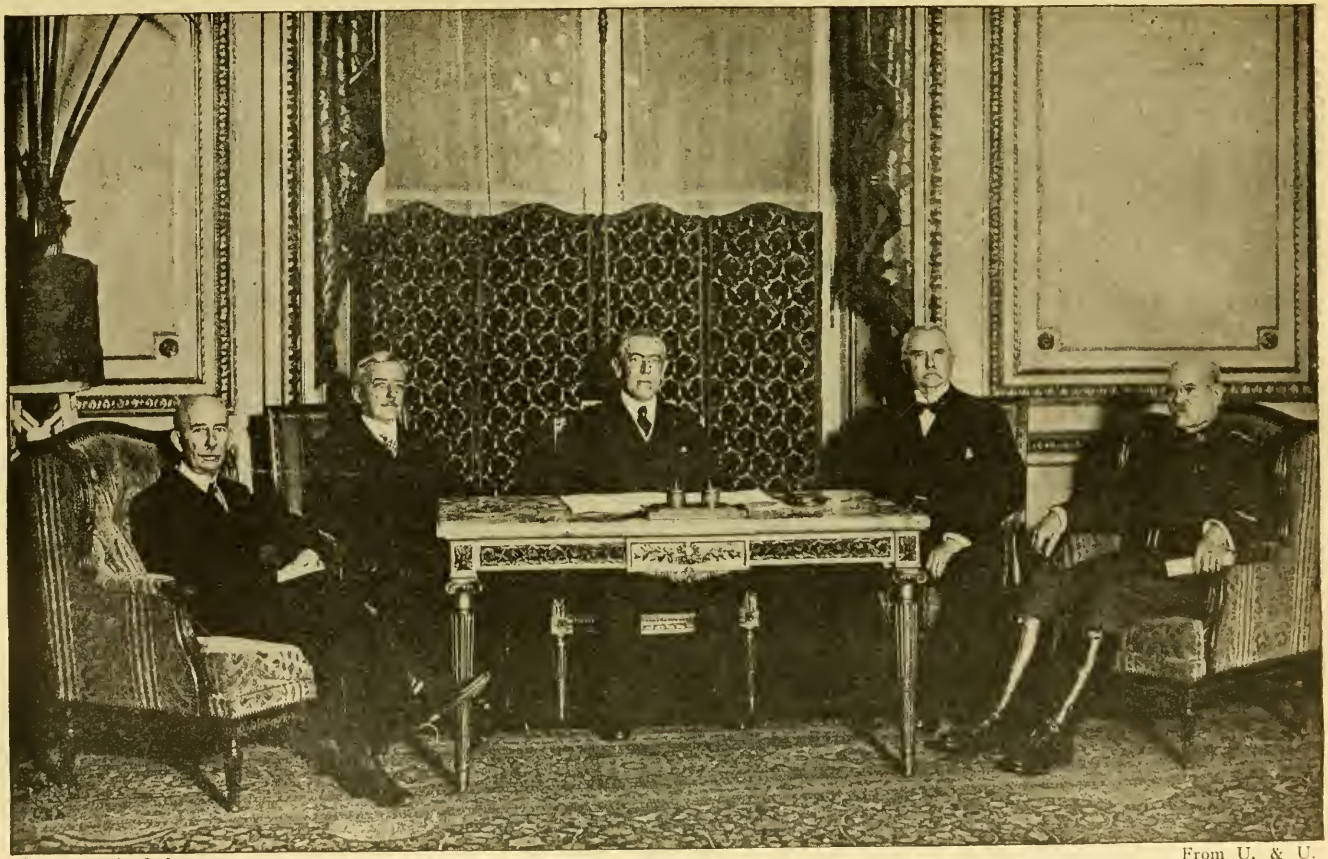
VICTORY SMILES AFTER THE ARMISTICE WAS SIGNED. © U. & U.

Heroes who helped defeat Prussianism, all wearing victory smiles. Front row, left to right: Marshal Foch, General Pershing, Madame Dubail, wife of the military governor of Paris, Marshal Joffre, General Dubail and his son. General Pelletier and General Galopin in the rear to either side of Marshal Joffre.

From U. & U. © Com. Pub. Inf.

AMERICAN SOLDIERS GOING INTO GERMANY.

The 18th Infantry of the First Army Division crossing the Moselle River from Luxemburg into Germany.



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AMERICAN PEACE DELEGATES IN PARIS.

From a flashlight photo, showing the American Peace Mission in session. Left to right are Colonel E. M. House, Robert Lansing, President Wilson, Henry White and General Tasker H. Bliss.

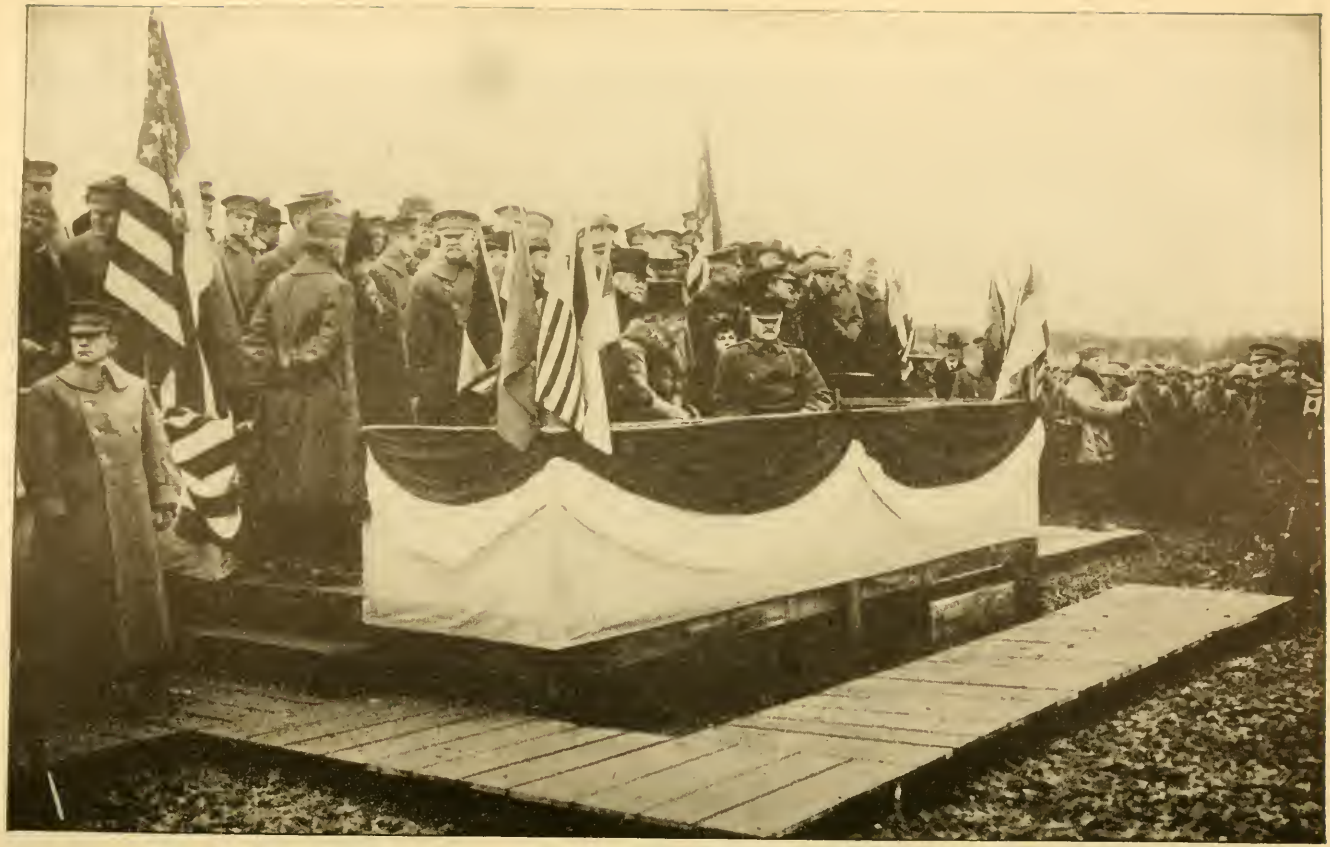


Photo U. & U.

REVIEWING AMERICAN TROOPS ON CHRISTMAS DAY, 1918.

President Wilson and Mrs. Wilson, with General Pershing, at Longres, near Chaumont, France, where they reviewed American troops on Christmas Day.

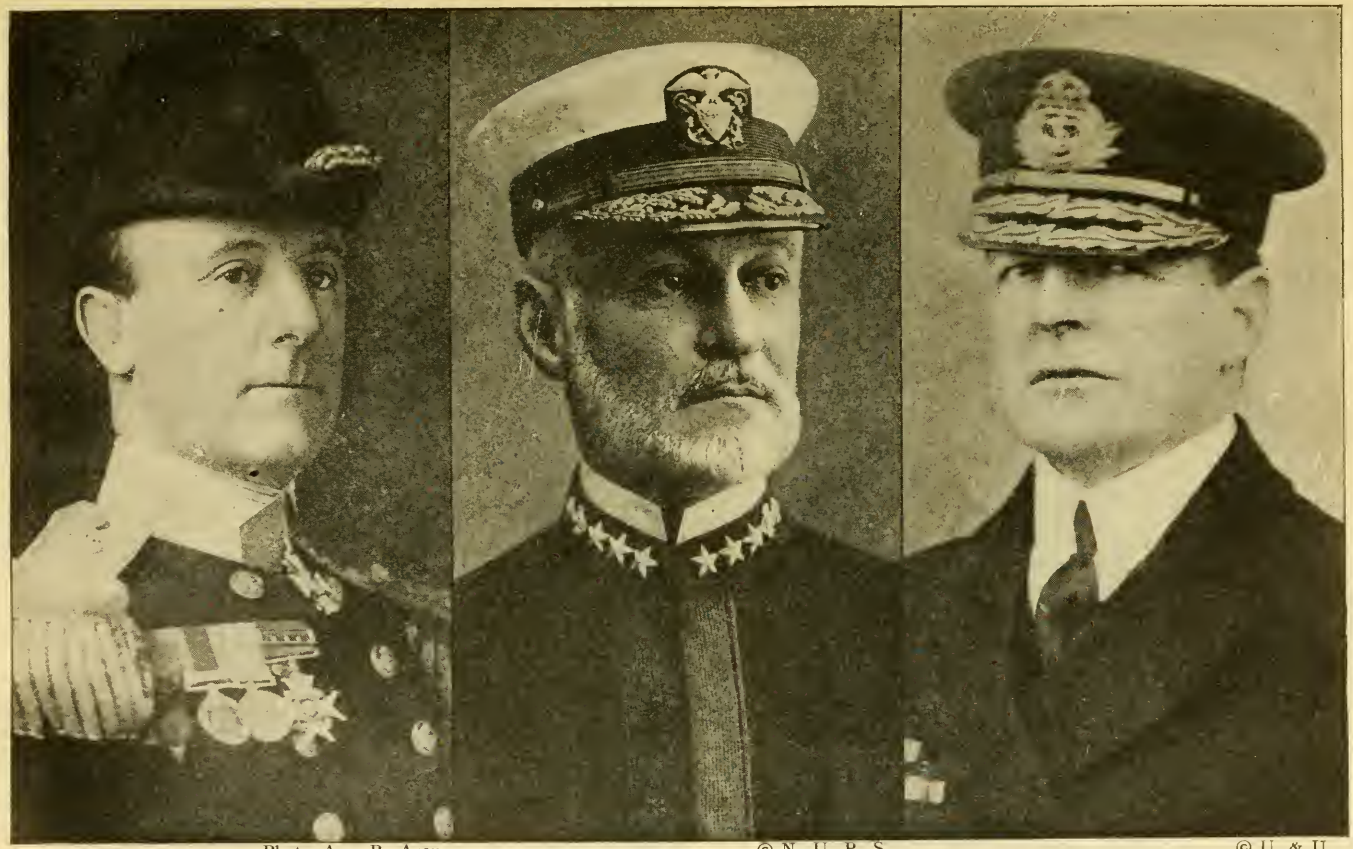
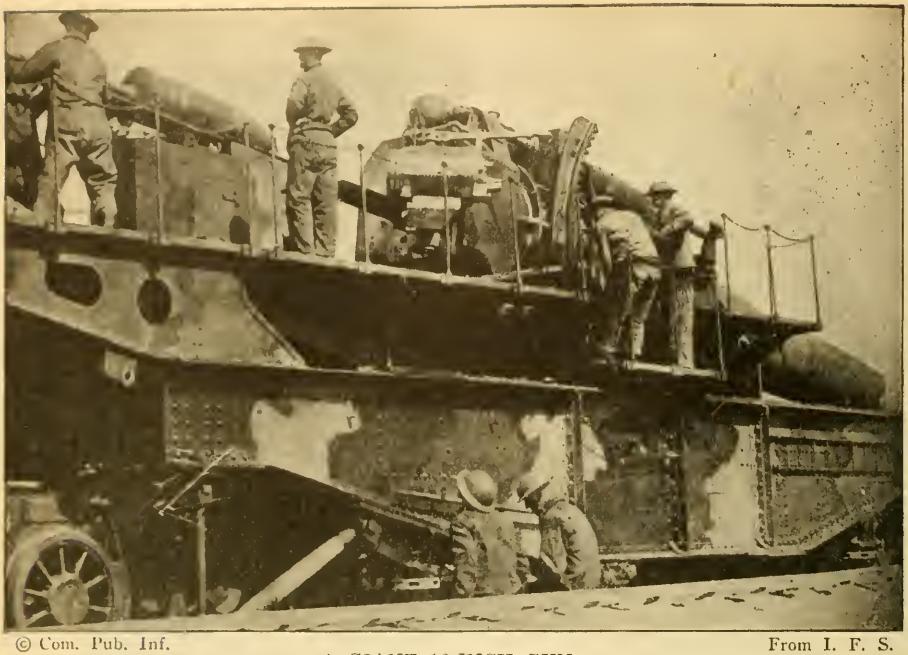


Photo Am. P. Assn. © N. U. P. S. © U. & U.

ADMIRAL JELLICOE. ADMIRAL SIMS. ADMIRAL BEATTY.

Actions speak louder than words. These famous sea fighters talk little, but their actions speak in thunderous tones. They waited and watched, always ready to give battle until the German fleet, including submarines, slunk out of their holes and surrendered.



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A GIANT 16-INCH GUN.

A French gun mounted on an American armored train and manned by U. S. heavy artillerymen.

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PARIS ACCLAIMING PRESIDENT WILSON ON ARRIVAL.

President Wilson and President Poincare, in procession through the streets of Paris and acknowledging the plaudits of the crowds.

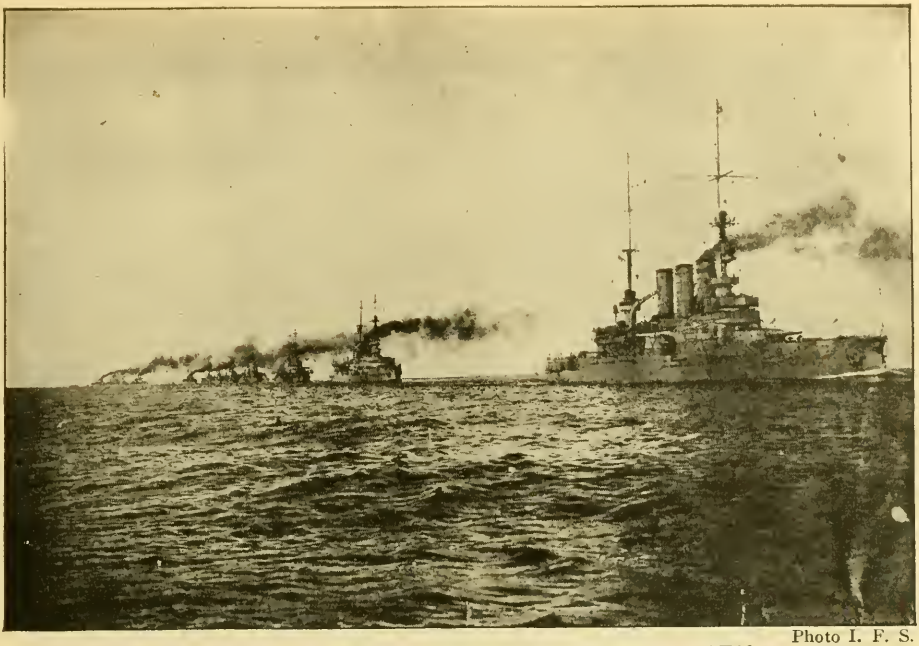

Photo I. F. S.

THE GERMAN NAVAL FLEET IN BATTLE FORMATION.

These fine ships surrendered to the Allies. They were kept bottled up, practically, for four years and then steamed out and surrendered.

Photo I. F. S.

THE SURRENDER OF GERMAN U-BOAT FLEET.

These German submarines are waiting to be escorted into Harwich, England, after their surrender. The German crews are seen standing on deck.

From U. & U. © Com. Pub. Inf.

Upper—General Pershing and Duchess of Luxemburg reviewing American troops in the town of Luxemburg.

Lower—First American soldiers to arrive in Luxemburg, passing in review before General Pershing and Duchess of Luxemburg.

EXPERTS AT HURLING HAND GRENADES.

The Hun started the use of poisonous gas, grenades, etc., and got strong doses of his own medicine thrown back on him. Then he wanted to quit.

British Official Photo. © I. F. S.

CREEPING ALONG A HEDGE IN NO MAN'S LAND.

Royal Scots in open warfare. When they got the Huns out of the trenches they went after them with vigor and enthusiasm.

© I. F. S.

DUTCH CASTLE WHERE THE FORMER KAISER HID

The Castle of Middachten, near Arnhem, Holland, owned by Count William Betinck, a friend of the ex-Emperor and with whom he stayed.

British Official Photo. © I. F. S.

WHERE FIVE THOUSAND GERMAN SOLDIERS WERE BURIED.

A German Cemetery near Bethune, which was recaptured by the British. The two pictures tell their own stories.

© Com. Pub. Inf. From I. F. S.

ST. MIHIEL TAKEN BY THE VICTORIOUS AMERICANS.

The upper picture shows the first batch of Hun prisoners being brought in by American soldiers, and the lower an American outpost near St. Mihiel

Photo I. F. S.

© Com. Pub. Inf.

THE FAMOUS AND MUCH TALKED-OF "HINDENBURG LINE."

A reproduced photograph, supplied by British Air Mission, which was taken from an aeroplane and shows the Hindenburg Line, near Bullecourt, France. Connecting trenches and acres of barbed wire shown at left.

Photo I. F. S.

TWO TYPES OF AMERICAN SOLDIERS.

There was no color line in France, on the battlefields, in training or in doing Army work. The colored soldiers did their duty and performed their work well, the same as the white soldiers.

Courtesy of "The Popular Science Monthly," New York.

LOCATING GUNS BY SOUND.

Microphones such as that shown at the end of the dotted lines located no less than sixty-three German guns in one day.

Frank Parker Stockbridge, who describes it in "The Popular Science Monthly" (New York, December), tells that the hiding-places of no less than sixty-three German guns were detected in this way in a single day. Says this writer, in an article entitled "How Far Off Is That German Gun?"——

"By the use of 'receiving stations' behind the lines, British and French military observers have been able to locate hundreds of German guns through the application of the science of acoustics. These stations are placed behind the Allied lines at points accurately determined, with the distance from each station to all others carefully recorded.

"A receiving station may be nothing more than a microphone-receiver concealed under a rock. The receiver is connected by wire to a central station with which the other stations are also connected. A simple clockwork device in the central station records the exact instant at which every sound is received at each receiving station.

"The first sound is that of the shell passing overhead, since the projectile fired by a high-power rifled cannon travels faster than the speed of sound, which is normally 1,123 feet a second, varying, however, with wind velocity and direction and the temperature and density of the air. The next sound recorded is the 'boom' of the gun, and then comes the sound of the exploding shell.

"Careful corrections are worked out to allow for variation in the speed of the sound-waves due to atmospheric conditions. Then the difference in time at which the same sound was recorded from the different receiving stations is compared with the known distance from station to station. . . .

"So accurate has this method proved that in almost every instance, when the work of the observers at the central station (which may be miles away from the receiving stations) is compared with photographs made from airplanes, showing the position of the same guns, there is not room for separate pinpricks to indicate the results of the two sets of observations.

"In one day, recently, sixty-three German guns were located by this means, and destroyed by airplane bombs, although many of them had been so successfully camouflaged that probably they never would have been discovered by any other means."

Photo I. F. S.

REMAINS OF A GERMAN BATTERY.

A common scene before the troops at the front on all the battlefields in France and Belgium.

Photo I. F. S.

THE MODERN TYPE OF TRENCH.

Seeing the enemy without being seen. Keeping covered from the enemy in the air, as well as on land, is also a necessity.

© I. F. S.

SHOWING THE RED CROSS SERVING FOOD AND DRINK.

Coffee and sandwiches being served to the soldiers. They not only bandaged their wounds and nursed them when sick, but they also gave them food and drink when they were hungry and tired.

RESTING NEAR THE MARNE WAITING TO GO INTO ACTION.

Always ready, were the famous U. S. Marines, to go into action. Furthermore, they always gave a good account of themselves, and the Hun knows it.

On September 23 the Serbians carried the huge massif of Drenska, commanding the important city of Prilep, and entered that city next day. The First Bulgarian Army, scarcely believing that this stronghold could be taken, fled in disorder. This cut off the Second Bulgarian Army behind Doiran, which, finding the First Army gone and its flank open, fled also. On September 25, Veles, the principal railway centre of old Serbia, was captured.

The invasion of Bulgaria by the Allies commenced on September 25, when the frontier was crossed near the fortress of Strumnitza, which fell next day. Uskub, the most important point in Southern Serbia, which had been used as the Main Headquarters for the Bulgarian Army, was entered on September 30. This opened a direct railroad line to Sofia, the capital of Bulgaria, and it was evident that another two or three days would see Bulgaria overrun. The capture of Uskub also opened the railroad toward Nish and laid Bulgaria to the menace of invasion from that side. Germany could send no help, she was being driven back. Austria could give no help, Italy was at her heels.

Although, only a month before, King Ferdinand had promised that he would never make a separate peace, the threat of revolution and anarchy in his capital forced his hand. On September 24 Bulgaria asked for an armistice. On September 29 the armistice was signed in Saloniki, the terms including the words "The armistice means a complete military surrender, and Bulgaria ceases to be a belligerent." Arrangements were made for the military occupation of Bulgaria, and the re-occupation of Serbia. Almost the whole of the Balkan section of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad came into Allied hands. Ferdinand abdicated on October 4.

There was still some fighting in this sector, for Austria had not yet surrendered. The naval base of Durazzo fell on October 2, 1918, from Italian and British naval attack, and Elbasan was taken by the Italians after a stubborn Austrian resistance. On October 13 the Serbians reëntered their war capital at Nish and the ultimate aim of the Saloniki campaign had been achieved.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE RUSSIAN STEAM-ROLLER BLOWS UP.

Cossack Success at Lemberg—East Galicia Captured—Occupation of Przemysl—Turn of the Tide at Cracow—Debacle of Tannenberg—Battle of Lodz—Decisive Winter Campaign of the Masurian Lakes.

THE opening of the war on the eastern front divided itself, from the very first day, into three parts. To the north, there was the German-Russian campaign, which began with the seizure of Czestochowa in Russian Poland and its supporting strategic point, Kalicz, both centering on Warsaw, a campaign which later extended northeastwards to the great Battles of the Masurian Lakes. The second was the Austrian-Russian campaign, which centered on Lemberg and Przemysl, whereby two armies passed north of the Carpathian Mountains into the Galician plain; this divided, later, into two parts. The third was the Austrian-Russian (and later, Roumanian) campaign, which covered the fighting from Czernowitz south to the ever-changing lines of the Balkan fronts.

Of these the Lemberg-Przemysl campaign was the first and the most central. It will make the strategy of the whole eastern front easier to understand if this dominating attack be made clear.

First and foremost, the Austrian-Russian border does not march with the line of the Carpathian Mountains. That mountain range forms an arc, with the convex of the curve pointing towards Russia. The frontier follows this arc at an average distance of about eighty miles. In this belt of fertile Galicia, between the Carpathians and the frontier, lie the two important points of the town of Lemberg and the fort of Przemysl.

Be it observed that Russia entered the war as coming to the support of her Slav neighbor, Serbia. The burden of attack, therefore, lay on Russia, not on Austria. This handicapped Russia seriously for three reasons: (1) Russian strategy was that of gradual retreat over her huge territory with flank cavalry and light artillery actions to cut off an ever-lengthening line of supply; (2) Russian mobilization had always

been leisurely and slow; (3) Russian transport was notoriously weak, for she possessed few strategic railways and almost no organized motor transport corps, such as are needed for a modern army.

For these three reasons Austria adopted partly the same tactics for Russia that she did, later, for Italy. She fortified and entrenched her naturally strong lines and awaited attack. The Russian invasion of Austria during the first few days of the war, like the Italian, later, was not due to Austrian weakness, but to an Austrian plan. In order to cover this line of defense, however, a separate Austrian army, under General Dankl, was marched forward to the northward, on Tomasov, to invade Russian Poland. Thus, should the Russian attack fail sufficiently to permit a counter-offensive, Dankl might encircle the Russian army, which had advanced on Lemberg and Przemysl and might take them in the flank or rear.

Start of the War on the Eastern Front.

The war on the Eastern front began quickly. On August 3, the day before the eastern war became a world war, both Germany and Russia had invaded each other's territory. On August 5, both Austria and Russia had invaded each other's territory.

The Austrian First Army, under Dankl, at once took the offensive. It advanced into Russian Poland, meeting little resistance. The First Russian Army fell back on the River Bug, following typical Russian strategy. The line of the Bug, protected by the forts of Zamosc, was a strong position. The psychological effect of this retreat, however, was to convince the Second Austrian Army, holding Lemberg, that the Russians were a weak foe, or at least, that in this war they purposed to retain their customary defensive strategy.

On August 12, the Russian forces advanced slowly across the frontier. The dashing Austrian cavalry tried to face the Cossacks, but were swept away like straw before a tornado. The next day, August 13, the important point of Sokal was seized. General von Auffenberg, secure in his supposed larger numbers and in his strong position, calmly awaited the Russian onslaught, which was seen advancing.

Meanwhile, unknown to the Austrians, a powerful Russian Army, under General Brussilov, was advancing on Tarnopol from Odessa. It contained 250,000 men. On August 14 this little-expected army seized Tarnopol and joined with the Second Russian Army a few miles south

of Brody. Not counting reserves, therefore, the Russians under Brussilov (who took charge of the campaign) were 550,000 against the Austrian 350,000.

The movements of the various Russian armies at this point are a little obscure. All tactics were kept a profound secret. Some facts, however, are clear. On August 17, for example, Dankl was compelled to halt his pursuit of the First Russian Army, von Auffenberg was fighting frontier actions with Russky, and Brussilov was concentrating at Tarnopol. During this week Russky seems to have had a far larger force than the week preceding. There seems reason to suppose that when Tarnopol was invested, Brussilov lent an army corps to Russky to enable the latter to drive the Austrians out of all their forward positions and to hammer them back on Lemberg. Brussiloff was delayed a few days because, on crossing the Austrian border at Wolocziska, all his railroad rolling stock became useless, as Austrian and Russian railroad tracks are not of the same gauge.

Junction of Russian Armies Accomplished.

Sunday, August 23, 1914, which was a notable day on the western front, when Charleroi was in flames and the British were battling at Mons, unwitting of the French disaster, was also a notable day on the east front. Both the Russians and the Austrians claimed victories. As a matter of fact, there were no notable victories for either side. The Austrians repulsed the steadily rolling rush of the Second Russian Army at one point, the Cossacks sent the Austrian cavalry flying to the rear at another.

What was really going on was that the Russians were advancing with an exasperating slowness, while an aggressive and powerful Cossack cavalry screen was harrying the Austrians, and even flanking their main army. Behind the confusion thus created by his cavalry Brussiloff was successful in achieving his desired goal, namely, the junction of his army with that of Russky.

Russian mobilization was proceeding apace, but it was a very different matter from German mobilization. From Berlin every detail had been arranged beforehand; in the Czar's armies, arrangements were made on the spur of the moment. There was amazing complication in the Russian lines. Had von Auffenberg been strong enough

and daring enough to make a sudden advance, he might have been able to prevent the junction of the two Russian armies.

To keep him from doing so was the work of the northern Russian army. Russky's steam-roller advance kept von Auffenberg on the alert all the time and the Cossacks, like hornets, gave his regiments no peace. Moreover, he could not tell what was happening behind that cavalry screen. That section of the country, moreover, being more friendly to the Russians than to the Austrians, little news of Brussiloff's movements leaked out. This Cossack advance, supported by light artillery, was admirably carried out. Many points which could only have been taken by infantry after heavy fighting were seized with the quickness that is only possible in cavalry manoeuvres. Meantime, at the slow rate of eight miles a day, the main armies moved on.

Strategical Position of Lemberg.

A word or two as to the general tactics of the Battle of Lemberg will make it clearer to the reader than a record of the minor actions day by day. Lemberg, capital of the crown-land of Galicia, a rich, historic, university city of a quarter of a million population, lies out in the plain. It is a railroad point of the first magnitude. Six railway lines ran out of it. The River Dneister runs to the south of it, at a distance of fourteen or fifteen miles, the River Bug runs to the northeast at almost the same distance. It is on a plain between two river valleys. Behind it lie the Carpathian Mountains and the fortress of Przemysl. If strongly held, therefore, Lemberg might be a dangerous wedge, preventing the Russian advance. If weakly held, it could easily become an ineffective salient.

Russian strategy in this case was clear. Since one Austrian Army had advanced northeastwards, in the direction of Russian Poland, and the other was seeking to defend Lemberg and Przemysl, the obvious aim of the Russians was to cut these two armies apart, if possible, and then defeat them one after the other. First, however, all means of escape must be cut off. Between August 26 and September 1 Brussiloff sent heavy Cossack divisions in advance to clear the way, drove his infantry by forced marches over a country without roads and seized the crossing of the Dneister, south of Lemberg. This gave him time to bring up heavy artillery to hold the stream. The river being thus

fortified, there was no place for the Austrians to escape between the rugged heights of the Carpathians and the southern outlet of Lemberg.

Meanwhile, Russky had been feinting with a large part of his army on the southern end of the Lemberg trenches, in order to give von Auffenberg the impression that the main Russian drive was to be made at that point. No sooner, however, did Brussiloff close the southern outlet from Lemberg than the whole Russian conjoined armies swung sidewise and to the north, and Russky struck heavily on von Auffenberg's northern wing. It took no great amount of penetration for the Austrians to see their danger. If they delayed longer, in the hope of saving Lemberg, there was a grave probability that they would be surrounded. A bombardment would gain them nothing; it would only cause the destruction of the town, which, be it remembered, was in Austrian, not Russian, territory. Von Auffenberg evacuated Lemberg the next day, and on September 3, 1914, the capital of Galicia was in Russian hands.

The Fall of Lemberg.

The main purpose of this first Russian strategical plan, therefore, had been achieved. Not only had Lemberg fallen, but the First and Second Austrian Armies were cut off from each other. The Second Army, under von Auffenberg, compelled to retire on Przemysl, was forced to the utmost to hold itself against the Russian steam roller advance. It is to be seen, now, what had been happening to the First Austrian Army during this period of Russky's and Brussiloff's united effort, which resulted in the taking of Lemberg.

The First Russian Army, under von Plehve, which had been retreating towards the lower part of the River Bug, stiffened its defense during the last week in August, and commenced to counter-attack, skilfully advancing with its left or southern wing, while holding firm with the right. The effect of this was steadily to cut off Dankl from the von Auffenberg armies around Lemberg and Przemysl. By September 3 this action had become so marked that a Third (and it seems, a Fourth) Army was hurried up to fill the gap between the First and Second Austrian armies. This Army, afterwards called the Fourth, was under command of the Archduke Joseph Ferdinand.

The Russian offensive against Dankl developed force on September 4. Swampy ground and pressure on the south prevented retreat

in that direction. The River Vistula hemmed it in on the north. Dankl's retreat became a difficult military problem, the front of his army being congested to a front of less than forty miles, and only bad roads behind him. Moreover, it was necessary for him to cross the River San while under pursuit, a feat accomplished by the Austrian commander with great skill. On September 6 the important town of Tomaszow was taken by the Russians. But Dankl, although hampered by congestion of transport, was all the better placed for rear guard actions. If the ground prevented a wide retreat, it also prevented a wide offensive.

Decisive Russian Victories.

The Austrians reached the River San on September 12. The river was heavily fortified throughout its length. At the south it was protected by Przemysl and Jaroslav; from thence, as it flowed north until it reached the wide river, the Vistula, it had been made the base of intrenchments. But the Russians were too close on the heels of the Austrians for the latter to be able to destroy all the bridges. The bridge at Kresnov was seized by the Russians, bringing the conflict to an immediate issue. The fighting on the San occupied a week, but it resulted in a decisive Russian victory. Losses were heavy, truly, but the amount of munitions and supplies that the Russians seized was enormous.

Russian success continued. Grodel and Mocsiska fell into Russian hands, cutting off the railroad communication to the east and south of Przemysl. On September 20 the fortress had been entirely surrounded. A fortnight's bombardment followed and then, on October 2, the Russians offered to accept the surrender of the city. General Kusmanek, of the garrison, who had 100,000 men at his command, declared his intention of holding the city to the last man. Fighting became desperate, reaching a crisis on October 5, 1914. The Russians stormed in force and even carried one of the outer works. A slight, a very slight, additional push might have taken them into the city, but that added driving force was lacking. The main Russian attack was definitely repulsed with exceedingly heavy losses. Since storming would not serve, the Russians settled down to a steady siege. That gave the enemy time to recuperate. The Austrians, with German reënforcements arriving day by day, commenced to flank the Russian armies of investment.

The tide began to turn. On October 18 a sharp action at Chyrow was disastrous for the Russians. At Nizankowice, the Austrians retook the heights. Far to the south, flanking Brussiloff's army, a German-Austrian army retook Czernowitz, the capital of the crown-land of Bukovina. Filled with hope from these successes, the Austrians launched a heavy counter-attack against Lemberg, hoping to drive a wedge between Brussiloff and Russky. In this they failed, though Jaroslav fell into their hands. Russian reserves having come up, a new offensive was begun and the Czar's armies retook Jaroslav on November 5 and, on the same day, also seized the important strategic point of Dandomierz. By November 20 the Russians were before Cracow and the larger part of Central Galicia was in their hands.

Cracow, however, proved as impregnable as had Przemysl. Having fallen back on the strong defense line of the Carpathian Mountains from Przemysl to Cracow, and supported by heavy German reënforcements, the Austrian line not only became rigid, but from time to time during the early winter it drove back the Russians at one point or another.

Russian Disaster at Tannenberg.

So far the Galician campaign had been localized and waged on its own merits. It was an affair solely between Russian and Austrian armies. With the entrance of the Germans into those sectors of the battlefront, however, it took on a new phase. This strengthening of the Galician line was made possible by the German victory at the Battle of Tannenberg, a battle almost as important in the east as was the Battle of the Marne in the west.

The main significance of the Battle of Tannenberg consisted in the fact that it stopped Russia's drive into East Prussia. It prevented the Czar's armies marching into Berlin.

This battle can be easily understood by grasping two main facts. The first of these facts was the personality of Paul von Hindenburg, the second was the topography of the country in which the battle was fought. The two were closely interlinked. For more than twenty years von Hindenburg, who lived in Hanover, had made a special and exhaustive study of the section of the German frontier, known as the "Land of the Masurian Lakes." He had tramped the marshes on foot, ridden over their dangerous paths on horseback, deliberately tested the most tricky fords and crossings with a heavy motor car. He

had drawn maps of the country with his own hands. In the General Staff College at Berlin he was an official lecturer on this subject.

It was von Hindenburg's influence which had caused the Kaiser to countermand a plan to drain and reclaim the swamps, on the ground that their defensive value outweighed the agricultural gain which might result from drainage. When the war broke out, von Hindenburg, a retired commander of 67 years of age, was put in charge of the army sent to defend this section, which he knew as well as a suburbanite knows his own back garden.

Physical Character of the Masurian Lakes.

The "Land of the Masurian Lakes" may be classed as the most treacherous piece of land in Europe. It is a mixture of patches of sand, beds of clay, hard bogs, soft bogs, morasses, quicksands, lakes, marshes, ponds and patches of scrubby woodland. Within a mile, a straight piece of road will pass through two or three of these sections. A hundred yards of dry hard gravel which could bear modern artillery may, with absolute suddenness, change its character and be followed by a soft clay mud, which would mire a horse. Fords across brooks and lakes are death-traps, for of two of them, only fifty yards apart, one may be solid and safe, the other may be a quicksand.

So much for the actual character of the ground in which the fighting was to occur. It remains now to see the general geography of the battleground. A north to south line will run almost through Königsberg, Warsaw, Tarnov (not far from Cracow) and Belgrade. The Russians had invaded Galicia and had reached Cracow. They invaded East Prussia and reached almost to Königsberg. Between these two points lay the great mass of Russian Poland.

East Prussia, therefore, to use a military term, may be regarded as a salient thrust into Russian territory, flanked on one side by the Baltic Sea, on the south by Russian Poland, with the point of the salient facing towards Petrograd. The point of this salient is a border of approximately 150 miles. On the northeast corner runs a small river, the Niemen. On the southeast runs a small river, the Narew. Russian armies mobilized at these two corners, the Army of the Niemen under General von Rennenkampf, the Army of the Narew under General Samsonoff. Each of these armies numbered about 200,000 men.

The first Russian advance was of startling success. The Army

of the Niemen drove straightway into German territory. A single German Army Corps stationed at Königsberg hurried forward to resist Rennenkampf. The Germans, however, even with reserves, did not have more than 75,000 men, and the short engagement at Stallupöhnen showed at once that the Russians were in far too great force for it to be military wisdom to offer resistance.

The Germans fell back on Gumbinnen. On August 20 came the first battle, but, after fifteen hours of stubborn fighting, the Germans withdrew to Insterburg. Within three days all the northern part of East Prussia was in Russian hands, and Rennenkampf was within striking distance of Königsberg, the most important point in East Prussia and the easternmost outpost of Teutonism.

The Russians Invade German Territory.

The Army of the Narew, which operated out from Warsaw, had two railroad lines to hand, that on the west through Mlawa and Soldau, and a roundabout road through Osowieck, Lyck and Ortelsburg. The former was used for the left wing of troops, the latter for the center and right wings and for supplies. Against the Army of the Narew the Germans could not present more than 75,000 men, a totally inadequate force. Therefore, in quick succession the Russian left wing, which advanced by the Mlawa road, took Soldau and Niedenburg; the center debouched south from Ortelsburg and took Willenberg; the right wing went north and seized Allenstein and Passenheim.

The definite location of the battleground was now beginning to be revealed clearly. In that country of lakes, bogs and swamps, it was the railroad lines and highways, instead of mountain heights and passes, which became the military points of strategy. Let the reader conceive a diamond-shaped rectangle of railroads, Eylau being the western point, Allenstein being the northern point, Soldau the southern point and Ortelsburg the eastern point. Tannenberg was in the middle. Five railroads fed the north-to-east sides of this diamond; only two railroads (those that have already been mentioned as used by the Russians) fed the other three sides. The Russian advance, it will be remembered, captured the eastern, northern and southern corners. The western corner was free.

On August 22 this eastern junction was menaced by the Russians. If Eylau fell, with it would go control of the five northern railroads

supplying Königsberg. It would give the strategic command of the whole section of the Masurian Lakes. If the Germans would save the situation immediate action was imperative. On that very day General von Hindenburg was sent to take command.

His strategical plan was simple. Combining all the German forces available, he had about 150,000 men. Against him were two armies of 200,000 men apiece. Obviously he could not allow them to make a junction. Each army must be attacked separately.

General von Hindenburg's Forces Recover Lost Ground.

Judging that the Germans would be in keenest anxiety with regard to the Russian threat at Königsberg, Samsonoff had thrown the strongest part of his army to the center and right. Soldau was but loosely held. With his intimate knowledge of the only possible by-paths and trails through the swamps, and still possessing control of the Eylau railroad junction, von Hindenburg attacked suddenly and sharply at Soldau, on August 26, 1914. The point was carried by storm immediately. With extraordinary speed and with a knowledge of the ground so exact as to seem uncanny, von Hindenburg intrenched.

The Russians counter-attacked with superior numbers the next day, but the German stategist had so disposed his lesser force that the railroad was under so concentrated a fire that the Russian troops could not detrain. Moreover, every possible path through the bog was held by machine gun nests. The heavy Russian counter-attack was repulsed and Samsonoff thrown back. With Soldau thus firmly in German hands, not only was the southwestern side of the diamond secured, but the whole Mlawa line back to Warsaw was cut off. If Samsonoff could be forced to retreat, he had no railroad open save the single round-about line through Lyck.

Meantime, von Hindenburg sent a part of his army through the marshes up to Hohenstein, where he menaced the long-strung-out Russian line which encircled the northeastern and southeastern sides of the diamond. At the same time he sent troops along the Eylau-Allenstein road. Supposing that the Germans were in equal force with himself, and realizing that he could not defend so lengthy an advance line, Samsonoff withdrew from Allenstein the next day. Thus, whereas on August 26, the Russians had held three junction points of the diamond-shaped rectangle of railroads, by August 28 they only held one—the

easternmost. Control of Allenstein gave von Hindenburg control of all the railway facilities of the diamond, except the single eastbound line to Lyck.

Bringing up regiments of the reserve, and using a few storm troops as the driving point, von Hindenburg swept outwards through the marsh around Allenstein, flanking the Russian army, a feat absolutely impossible unless every defile were plotted and every bog and treacherous place marked in the commander's mind as well as on the detail maps carried by the German officers. Thence he struck at Samsonoff—not from the western but from the eastern side of the railroad, forcing the Russians back along the line of road and driving them into the interior of the diamond. The reader will remember that the interior was little more than a welter of bog and swamp.

Men, Horses and Guns Engulfed in the Mire.

There was nothing but bog and swamp. Relentlessly and resistlessly, von Hindenburg moved southward from Allenstein until at last he had taken Ortelsburg, the junction of the only remaining railroad line eastward or southward out of the diamond. The Russian troops stationed at Ortelsburg had been able to escape in part, but, in order to get away, they had left behind them nearly all their guns and munitions, and not a single locomotive or railroad car remained to transport the divisions which were thus marooned.

Having put the Russians into a triangle from which there was no outlet, and controlling the railroads which ran along the two sides of that triangle, von Hindenburg struck with his main force, from Tannenberg, on the base of the triangle.

Von Hindenburg had cornered the Russians like rats in a pit. From light artillery mounted on flat cars, from machine guns placed on the banks of the railroad, he poured shrapnel and bullets as a rain of death on the defenceless Russians. Striving to flee, companies, yes whole regiments floundered into bogs.

Without considering the losses during the actual fighting, 20,000 men were actually buried alive in the muck, and 30,000 men were taken prisoner in that small triangle alone. Of Samsonoff's huge army, less than 100,000 escaped the trap set by von Hindenburg, and those which remained were utterly demoralized, without supplies, without guns, without horses and in touch with Russia only by the single narrow line

of railroad through Lyck. It was more than a disaster, it was a horror!

Von Hindenburg's knowledge of the country had stood him in good stead. He had routed Samsonoff with fearful loss, but his task was not over. Von Rennenkampf, with a Russian Army still superior in numbers to the German, was confidently awaiting a frontal attack. Von Hindenburg had no intention of risking the issue by such crude tactics. He was working in a swamp country, and he intended to take full advantage of his superior knowledge. Instead of striking directly at von Rennenkampf he circled northward toward Eydtkuhnen, with the intention of repeating his former manoeuvre and driving von Rennenkamp down into the treacherous Masurian Lake country.

Von Hindenburg was then summoned to another part of the battle-front, in recognition of his marvellous success at Tannenberg, and General von Morgen took his place. The German advance into Russia was promptly countered, and Rennenkampf invaded Germany anew, once more taking Lyck. But, by October 13, the Germans had replied with a vigorous counter-offensive and the second invasion of East Prussia lasted but ten days.

A third invasion in November reached but a small distance into enemy territory. At the conclusion of this winter campaign, the Russians were definitely barred out from East Prussia. All future fighting in this section was on Russian soil.

CHAPTER XV.

THE ROAR OF GUNS IN FROZEN LANDS.

The Kaleidoscope of Divided Russia and Siberia—Poland—The Cossacks—The Ukraine—Vladivostock—String of Conflicts Along the Trans-Siberian Railroad—Czecho-Slovaks With Their Backs to the Wall—German-Made Revolt in Finland—Allied Troops on the Murman Coast.

IT is necessary to preface any writing on the subject of the territorial and governmental changes in the erstwhile Russian Empire with a word of warning. Ever since the Bolshevist coup d'etat, and, to some extent, ever since the abolition of the Czar's regime, there was nothing definite in Russia. One may speak of the Ukraine, of the Don Cossacks, of the government of Omsk, and the like, as if they were separate entities. Up to the end of 1918 they were not so. These regions were merely nuclei of groups of people with similar sentiments. They had no official boundaries. They had no constitutional leaders. They had no national position. They had no diplomatic representation.

Finland and the Ukraine, alone, may be regarded as somewhat more clearly defined; Finland, because she was a separate entity before being included in the Russian Empire; the Ukraine, because a vague frontier was defined in the treaty of Brest-Litovsk. But, since the armistice terms declared Brest-Litovsk treaties null and void, this frontier line, also, was largely a disputed and uncertain thing. Moreover, most of the dates given in contemporary records are misleading and inaccurate.*

The largest question with regard to the partition of Russia was that of Poland. It had been a European problem for several hundred years. The world war did not settle it, on the contrary, it made the complication more acute. The Central Powers allegedly made a free Poland on November 5, 1916. It took only a few weeks to show that

*The dates given in this chapter are those of the Chronology in "Current History." It is to be remembered that the Russians do not use the same calendar as Americans. Some of the new republics dated their actions "Old Style," others "New Style." These dates are all New Style, but can only be considered as approximate, not exact.

this was a German trick to inveigle the Polish armies. On December 8 the German and Austrian Governors-General decreed a provisional National Council, acclaiming the fact that Poland was freed from Russian despotism, but ignoring the fact that they were putting her under German despotism. The Poles would have none of it.

The next move with regard to Poland came from Russia. During the first month after the abdication of the Czar, the Duma decided to set Poland free. On March 29, 1917, the Provisional Government of Russia appointed a committee "to make the necessary arrangements for the separation of Poland from Russia and to determine the relation of the state to the Roman Catholic Church." This was eminently agreeable, but the Russian declaration had little more direct and effective result than the German. Poland had already been divided by Austria, Germany and Russia. Both the new Russian and the German declarations dealt with a part of Poland, not with Poland as a whole. The Poles would have none of this, either. It was seen, at once, that the efforts of both Germany and Russia were bids for Polish sympathy for their own ends.

Free Poland a Necessity.

Far more interest was accorded to President Wilson's declaration of the rights of all-Poland on January 19, 1917. More important still was the Allied recognition of the Polish troops as a national army, thus definitely declaring that Poland was regarded by the Allies as a nation in being. This recognition of the Army was first made by France, June 4, 1917.

With a Polish Army fighting against the Central Powers, Germany could no longer continue the autonomy she had herself suggested. Accordingly, on September 15, 1917, the "supreme authority" in Poland was transferred to a regency council of three members, appointed by the Kaiser of Germany, the Emperor of Austria and the Sultan of Turkey. It promised, however, a Polish King and a Polish Parliament after the war. This satisfied nobody.

Next came President Wilson's "fourteen points," stated on January 8, 1918.

By the treaty of Brest-Litovsk, Russia ceded Poland to Germany, the action being taken by the Bolshevist representatives, who were in German pay. The Bolshevists announced on February 19, 1918, that

they had been compelled to accept the terms and the treaty was signed on March 3. On March 18, the Allies in a united statement answered this treaty with the statement: "Poland, whose heroic spirit has survived the most cruel of national tragedies, is threatened with a fourth partition and, to aggravate her wrongs, devices by which the last trace of her independence is to be crushed, are based on fraudulent promises of freedom."

The Polish Army Recognized by the United States.

The summer of 1918 saw a curious situation in Poland. The Poles, as a whole, frenetically desired independence. Some thought it might come through the Central Powers, some through the Allies, some by independent military action. In addition to these three main divisions, there were Polish Legions with the Kaiser and Polish Legions with the Allies. Besides these, there were five strong personal political parties in Poland. To follow the mazes of Polish political intrigue would take a volume. What really happened was that the Poles began to see clearly that the Germans and the Bolshevists were their principal enemies, and the various disagreements began to fuse into a direct hostility against these two forces. The beginning of the German defeat increased this feeling and the Poles grew more aggressive, realizing that all their hopes lay with the Allies. All this time, of course, Poland was being subjected to German atrocities.

On November 4, seven days before the ending of the war, Secretary Lansing, for the United States, "recognized the Polish Army, under the supreme political authority of the Polish National Committee, as autonomous and co-belligerent."

One cannot pass without mention the famous incident of the Poles captured by Austrian troops and sentenced to death, who declared that they did not wish an appeal for mercy from their Polish compatriots to Austria. The words are too beautiful to lose. They said, in part: "We cast unfalteringly into the lot our greatest asset, the fame of a Polish soldier, established upon his blood and that most beautiful legend of a Polish army reborn.

"You are not to injure us with gifts requiring too great concessions. Do not permit our personal lot to weaken the united Polish front, for the verdict and the death penalty can only affect us physically. The sufferings undergone by our grandfathers and fathers we will continue

as a national obligation, without complaint and without resentment, and with the sincere conviction that we are serving a free, united and independent Poland."

Toward the end of October, 1918, Germany instituted an organized system of massacre in Prussian Poland. On October 24 the Polish National Committee proclaimed the union of all Polish territories subject to Germany, Austria and Russia. On November 9 the Polish Republic was proclaimed under the presidency of President Daszynski, on a territorial basis of Old Poland. War then recommenced against Germany, Austria and the Ukraine. The armistice was signed between the Allies and Germany on November 11. Poland was not one of the signatories. She severed relations with Germany on December 15, General Pilsudski assuming control of the government until the meeting of the Constituent Assembly in January. On January 1, 1919, a Polish army was marching on Berlin. Poland was also in arms against the Bolsheviki and sharp fighting was in progress, though of a scattered character. It was clear, none the less, that Poland as an independent state, was definitely formed. Later phases would be questions of organization.

The World War in the Ukraine.

It is necessary next, in considering the partition of Russia, to trace the developments of the world war in the Ukraine. This is the southeastern section of Russia, and is populated by the Little Russians, sometimes called "The Irish of Russia." The Ukrainians are a quick-thinking, gay, witty people, who were formerly the masters of Russia. The Great Russians, a heavy, group-moving northern people, conquered them centuries ago. There is a marked difference in race, customs and language. A large proportion of the writers, artists, musicians and intelligentsia of Russia were Little Russians; comparatively few were Great Russians, hardly any were White Russians.

The Ukraine as a separate question in the world war came to the surface as a result of disintegration of Russia, the weakening of Austria, and the strengthening of its former master, Poland. The Ukrainian People's Republic was proclaimed by the Rada or Parliament, November 20, 1917, thirteen days after the Bolshevist coup d'etat. It was recognized at the Brest-Litovsk peace negotiations as a separate state, both by the Bolshevists and by the Central Powers. It claimed an area of 195,000 square miles, with a population approx-

imately as large as that of France. It is one of the richest parts of Russia.

Trouble began at once. The Ukranians or Little Russians—who have largely intermarried with Cossack blood—found themselves in harmonious relations with the Don Cossacks. For their part, the Cossacks of the Don, not being an industrial people in any sense of the word, and regarding war from its loftier and more chivalrous side, could not abide Lenine, Trotzky and all their works. They hated treachery and despised traitors.

Demands of the Bolsheviki Refused.

Consequently, Lenine and Trotzky sent an ultimatum to the Ukraine accusing the new state of a "double-faced and bourgeois policy" and declaring that the Ukraine was supporting the counter-revolution of the Don Cossacks under Kaledine. Lenine demanded that passage be given to armies of the Reds, that the Ukraine aid in warfare against the Cossacks, and that a Soviet government be organized at once. Twenty-four hours were given for reply. None was made. Civil war formally began December 18, 1917. The Bolsheviki captured Odessa on January 26, and Orenburg on January 31. On the other hand, Roumanian and Ukranian troops, acting together, took Kishineff, the capital of Bessarabia, on January 27.

At the Brest-Litovsk negotiations, there were two delegations from the Ukraine, one representing the People's Republic, the other representing the Russian Bolshevist Soviets in the Ukraine. The Central Powers decided to deal with the former and a treaty was signed which made the Ukraine commercially a part of Austria-Hungary, but politically an entity of its own. This treaty was abrogated by the terms of the armistice between the Allies and the Central Powers.

This selection by the Central Powers of the original Ukraine government continued the bad blood between the Ukraine and the Bolsheviki. The Red Guard invaded the Ukraine anew. Appeals for help were sent by the Ukraine to their new allies, the Austro-Germans. Accordingly, German armies commenced the invasion of Ukraine. Once settled in the country, they would not leave it, and instead of coming to the aid of the Little Russians, it speedily became evident that Germany was occupying the Ukraine, exactly as it would a conquered territory.

The next entanglement occurred between Ukraine and Roumania. Early in April, 1918, the Bessarabian Diet announced that it had voted by a large majority to join its territory to the Kingdom of Roumania. The Ukraine protested, as Bessarabia was largely populated by Ukrainians, and the sea-coast frontier was a matter of dispute.

On April 18, Germany threw off its disguise of pretended friendship, and on April 26, General von Eichhorn, commander of the German Army in the Ukraine, proclaimed a "state of enhanced protection." On April 28 German soldiers entered the hall of the Rada or Parliament, dissolved it, arrested many of its members, and nominated General Skoropadsky to be Hetman of the Ukraine.

Germany's Interference in the Ukraine.

This Germanized and non-Ukrainian government of the Ukraine promptly proceeded to make peace with the Germanized and non-Russian Bolshevist government of Russia, negotiations beginning on May 10. Roumania, meantime, had been forced to an agreement of the Peace of Bucharest, closed on May 10, which put all her resources under the heel of Germany. This treaty, also, was revoked by the terms of armistice of November 11. Germany then interfered in the Ukraine-Russia peace meetings, feeling that it was better to keep all Slav forces antagonistic to each other for their better weakening. None the less, an agreement with regard to boundaries was reached on June 28.

The enforced German occupation of the Ukraine set the whole country in arms. The revolt became a national rebellion. Germany was compelled to rush large numbers of troops to aid the alien Skoropadsky regime. By the middle of July Germany had a new little first-class war on her hands. On July 31, Field Marshal von Eichhorn, the German Commander in the Ukraine, was killed by a bomb. German garrisons were beleagured at several points. The Mailed Fist, however, was sufficiently strong to retain Skoropadsky as Hetman. The surrender of Bulgaria and the collapse of Turkey, however, strengthened the hands of the anti-German Ukranians, and thus Germany was unable to get supplies. The close of German aggression came when the general armistice was signed on November 11, ordering Germany to evacuate all territory which belonged to Russia as before the war. This left the Ukraine a separate state, recognized by

the Central Powers, by Bolshevist Russia, and by Roumania, but not by any of the "Big Four."

The Don Cossack question may be briefly told. Cossack resentment against the Russian Revolution began from the beginning. The Cossacks had always received special military privileges from the Czar. The Provisional Government's plan for putting them on the same plane as the rest of the army was an affront to their dignity. From that time until the end of the war they were uniformly opposed to Lvoff, Kerensky and the Bolshevists.

The Chaotic Conditions in Russia.

Nothing could more clearly show the chaotic conditions in Russia than the establishment of an Austro-German pro-Bolshevist Cossack government under General Krasnoff on May 29, 1918. This was an offshoot of the Skoropadsky action in the Ukraine. It was a mere announcement on paper, and never had any adherence among the people. On July 29 a treaty was signed whereby the two real Cossack governments, one of Rostov and the other of Astrakhan, recognized their complete and separate autonomy and agreed to help each other against all enemies and for the reconquest of their original territories. When the famous Ufa government was organized on October 7, 1918, to replace "the fallen Bolshevists" (who had by no means fallen) Cossack delegates were among those admitted to the convention.

Very characteristically, it was the Cossacks under General Denikine who put an end to the fiction of the Ukraine government under Skoropadsky. On November 20, 1918, nine days after the general armistice, the Ukrainian Government was overthrown and General Denikine entered Kiev. Three days later a courier from General Denikine's army was favorably received at Saloniki, reëstablishing communication between the Cossacks and the Allied armies which had been broken a year before. Throughout the years, however, the Cossacks had been regarded as loyal to the Allied cause.

Lithuania once stretched from the Baltic to the Black Sea. In a later section of this book the racial and diplomatic history of the Letts is told in some detail. In its relation to the world war, Lithuania as a separate state entered proceedings by a formal declaration of independence proclaimed by Lithuanian delegates at Stockholm,

Sweden, on January 8, 1918. The Treaty of Brest-Litovsk gave Lithuania to Germany.

On May 14, 1918, the Kaiser issued a proclamation recognizing the independence of Lithuania, but promptly asserting that it would be expected to aid Germany in the war. Lithuania was at this time entirely in German hands, all the peasant men and old women being set at work in the fields, all the girls commandeered and shipped to parts of the battle-line for the use of the soldiers. On September 10 an official dispatch was received in Washington stating that Germany had finally organized the Baltic provinces into two parts, one the "military administration of the Baltic Provinces," with its capital at Riga, including the three provinces of Courland, Livonia and Esthonia, with provincial governments under a "Captain of Administration"; the second being the "Military Administration of Lithuania," with the capital at Vilna, divided into five districts. All this organization was thrown into the scrap-heap by the armistice of November 11, which curtly told the Germans to evacuate Lithuania and the Baltic Provinces without delay.

Internal Strife in Finland.

The Finnish question was so completely a diplomatic, rather than a military issue, that it has been treated in detail in the later portion of this book. The military question began with the declaration of Independence of Finland by the Diet in November, 1917, the proclamation of that Independence in December, and the overthrow of the "bourgeois" government by Finnish Red Guards, or a variety of Bolsheviki, in January. German troops landed on February 21, 1918. On March 10, the Finnish Bolshevist Government and the Russian Bolshevist Government made a mutual treaty by which Russia acceded independence to Finland.

Dealing in a general manner, it may be said that White Finland, or the White Guards, represented the pro-Swedish and therefore the pro-German party. The clash was rendered keener by Sweden's seizure of the Aland Islands, belonging to Finland, but a strategic naval base for Sweden. The Swedish Parliament ordered the occupation of the Aland Islands on the ground that since the islands were populated by Swedes they needed protection against the atrocities of the Red Guards. On April 3, a German Army co-operating with the

White Guards, landed in Finland. On April 15, Helsingfors, the capital of Finland, was occupied by German troops and, two days later, another army corps was landed in Helsingfors. The actual government (Bolshevist or Red Guard) moved its capital to Viborg. Fighting was bitter, but on April 30 the Germans and White Guards together took Viborg and massacred every Red Guard taken prisoner. This practically ended the independence of Finland, which had now become a German military administration. Germany and Russia then made secret treaties, the net result of which was that Russia should cede the Murman coast to Finland in return for certain important fortresses and strategic points in the south.

A state of war was forthwith proclaimed in the province of Archangel, June 23, owing to the attempt of the Finnish Government (now Germanized) to take Kola. On July 7 the population of the Murman Coast broke allegiance with Russia and joined the Allies. On August 2, Finland reiterated her Alliance with Germany. With the evident weakening of Germany, Finland began to see that she had chosen unwisely, a feeling which was all the more impressed on her by Allied successes to the north. Consequently, a general armistice was granted by the White Guard Government to all Red Guards and revolutionaries on November 1. When the armistice was signed on November 11, German troops were ordered to evacuate Finland. This left Finland in a divided state, with all the conditions favorable for continued civil war.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE INTREPID ANZACS AT GALLIPOLI.

German Seizure of Constantinople—Turkey in the War—The Impregnable Dardanelles—Seven Months in a Hail of Fire—The Storming of Suvla Bay—The Three Great Assaults—Turkish Gallantry—Final Failure of the British and Abandonment of the Campaign.

VIEWED from its military aspect, the entrance of Turkey into the war had a five-fold aspect. First and most important, there was the question of the guarding of the Dardanelles; second, there was the territorial integrity of Turkey in Europe, with its Greek and Serbian frontier; third, there was the opportunity of invasion of Egypt and the capture of the Suez Canal; fourth, there was the Caucasus frontier, with its interminable complications and the menace of Russia; and, fifth, there was the Mesopotamian campaign. For these various purposes Turkey was able to place 2,000,000 men in the field, commanded largely by Germans with Field Marshal Liman von Sanders in actual supreme command, and with German artillery and equipment. Besides this, the Turk had the reputation—which the world war only increased—of being one of the best fighting men in Europe.

The question of the Dardanelles can be considered in two phases, its military and naval aspects. The latter will be told in one of the later chapters on Naval Warfare. For the present, the land attack will be considered as a single whole. It is the Gallipoli Peninsula which is under consideration.

In some of the theatres of war the topography was difficult to follow. Here, it is of the simplest. The Gallipoli Peninsula is a mountainous strip of land only two and a half miles wide at its narrowest point and sixty miles long, controlling the Dardanelles for the whole length of the straits. There are few points in the world naturally so well adapted for defensive operations as the shores of the Gallipoli Peninsula. The beaches are narrow, with steep mountain slopes, often unscalable cliffs, rising to considerable heights. There are three main crests: (1) that of Achi Baba, situated within three miles

and a half of the tip of the Peninsula; (2) Sari Bair on the western side of the Peninsula, eight miles to the north; (3) Kilid Bahr, a plateau with three strong forts commanding the Narrows of the Dardanelles, the most important of all.

The defenses of the peninsula could be cut off at two points, one at the Isthmus of Bulair, between the Gulf of Saros and the Sea of Marmora, and the other at a stretch of low country lying between the Sari Bair heights and those of Kilid Bahr. In order to achieve the former, conjoined naval action would be necessary both from the Gulf and from the Sea of Marmora, and the latter could not be attained without the capture of the Dardanelles. It was the latter severance, therefore, which was attempted.

Unsuccessful Attacks by the Anzacs, British and French.

The British planned landings which should at the same time rush the southern position of Achi Baba, and, if possible, also take Sari Bair entirely or occupy the belt of low country and the heights beyond, thus cutting it off from Kilid Bahr. Landings, however, were almost impossible. Along many miles of coast there were no beaches. Every hillside along the whole coast was defended to the uttermost. Row upon row of barbed wire had been stretched along the beaches and even into the sea. Every inch of the coast was mined. The German artillery officers had studied the ground and there was not a possible landing which was not under heavy fire, both direct, cross and enfilading. In addition to which, heavy batteries solidly mounted in the hills of the interior had all their ranges worked out in advance, ready to blow into atoms all boats beaching on the shore.

The landing was done in three main parties. On Sunday, April 25, 1915, just at dawn, the British landed at five beaches near the tip of the peninsula, with Achi Baba as their goal; the Australians and New Zealanders, or "Anzacs," landed northeast of Gaba Tepe, at Sari Bair, having gone a mile and a half north of their designated point, and the French landed on the Asia Minor side, at Kum Kale, the latter being announced in the communiqué merely a feint, although the heavy casualties seemed to deny this. The losses at all points were desperate. Numbers of boatloads were shot to a man before setting foot ashore.

The fighting continued without cessation for three days, the French speedily leaving their Asian attack at Kum Kale and coming to the aid of the British. At the end of those three days, one third of the landing forces were killed or wounded, Achi Baba had not been carried, even the village of Krithia had defied all Allied advance, and the Anzacs were hanging on to a thin strip of shore by sheer nerve and courage.

Sir Ian Hamilton, the British commander, ordered attack after attack on Achi Baba, forming what were known as the First and Second Battles of Krithia and the First and Second Battles of the Anzac. No words could suffice to praise the courage of the Anzacs, but every word of praise should be repeated for the Turks, who proved themselves not only gallant soldiers, heroes in their handling of desperate attacks and counter-attacks, but also the most chivalrous foes which the Allies encountered on the battlefield. The French Expeditionary Force fought with equal gallantry. It was all useless. The natural defenses, the marvellously intricate trench system, the powerful German artillery, and the daring of the Turks rendered it sure that long before the Allies could take those trenches inch by inch every man of the Allied forces would be killed. The battle casualties (not including an appalling hospital list) were 40,000 for the British alone in those three days, or more than the total losses of the three long years of the Boer War.

Second Phase of the Gallipoli Campaign.

This ended the first part of the Gallipoli campaign. The net result was that the French had been driven entirely off from the Kum Kale landing; the British had dug themselves in on the tip of the peninsula, but were exposed to constant fire and an insuperable difficulty of landing supplies; the Anzacs had dug in near Sari Bair and were holding on with their teeth. The Allies were out-numbered, outmanoeuvred, out-placed and out-fought. The British Commander saw his forces melting away under disease and Turkish attack and notified the military authorities in England that further frontal action would be suicidal.

The second phase of the Gallipoli campaign was known as the Attack on Suvla Bay. This was an even bigger affair. Heavy reënforcements had been sent from England, including several Indian hill-

tribe regiments. The attack was to be fourfold. The main attack was to be at Suvla Bay, a few miles north of Anzac Cove, where the Australians and New Zealanders were holding fast. The troops establishing the new landing here were to push rapidly across country, skirting the small Salt Lake and to seize Anafarta Ridge, at once taking up artillery positions against Sari Bair. The second attack was to be an Anzac charge on Sari Bair itself. The third was to be an attack on the main railroad communications as they passed along the narrow Isthmus of Bulair leading from the Turkish Mainland to the Gallipoli Peninsula. The fourth was to be a new assault on Krithia with the intention of storming the height of Achi Baba.

The Suvla Bay landing on August 6, 1917, was a success, regarded as a landing only. The troops marched inland and took up moderately strong positions. The Sari Bair attack of the same day was repulsed with heavy losses. On August 7 the Turks realized that the troops which had landed at Suvla Bay and were threatening the Anafarta Ridge might become a serious menace, although the Ridge itself had no relation to the Dardanelles shores, which were on the other side of the peninsula. The Turks moved reënforcements and artillery with surprising vigor and very soldierly handling, and held the invaders back. At Sari Bair the Anzacs and the Indian troops charged up some of the steepest and most fiercely held slopes of the height, whose crest they were determined to reach, and, though decimated, the survivors dug in.

Complete Failure of the Allied Offensive.

On August 9 occurred one of the bravest charges of the war. The Ghurkas and the New Zealanders actually carried Hill Q and Rhododendron Ridge. But the German and Turkish artillery was ready. The men had just ten seconds to cheer their victory and then the guns, laid to command those very heights, poured in a storm of shrapnel, even before the attackers had time to dig themselves in one inch. The firing began and stopped with the precision of clockwork, and, synchronized to the minute, the Turkish troops, at least four to one in number, swept the survivors of the Ghurka and Anzac regiments entirely free from the slopes of Sari Bair. The Irish and Australians, meantime, had been fighting desperately on the Anafarta Ridge and had gained several heights, in many cases, to be expulsed immediately afterwards.

One last final attack was made on August 21. It told the same story. The Irish, English, Australian, New Zealand and Indian troops fought savagely. Officers sacrificed themselves with the men. But the soldiers facing them were not inferior in courage, they had the advantage of position, they possessed plenty of supplies, and the Allied attack was crumpled. The slopes flowed with blood, but the Turks held to the death.

The slaughter was terrific, and no military urgency could justify the continuance of the campaign. England had lost, counting killed, wounded, missing and invalided home close to 200,000 men, making it the most costly single campaign in history. Yet not one single objective had been attained. Achi Baba had not been taken, Sari Bair had suffered only a temporary occupancy during a few minutes of one of its lower slopes and the main point, that of Kilid Bahr, had never been threatened at all.

The Campaign Abandoned.

Lord Kitchener was sent to find a way whereby the troops could be withdrawn without too much loss. Great praise was given to Sir Ian Hamilton's successor, General Monroe, for the manner in which the retreat was accomplished. On December 19, 1915, the Anzacs left the beaches at Anzac Cove and Suvla Bay, which they had held so tenaciously and at such terrible sacrifice, and, on January 8, 1916, the British left the tip of the Peninsula. It was cold comfort to Britain to write with loud and fulsome praise of the way in which this operation had been carried out. With a tremendous loss of prestige, at enormous expense, with a deplorable loss of life, the whole Gallipoli campaign was abandoned. The Turks proclaimed everywhere, and with truth, that "England had run away." Perhaps the saddest part of the whole affair was the knowledge that these heroic troops, than which none better ever stepped on the field of battle, might have saved Serbia had they been sent in time to help the tiny French force at Saloniki.

The disaster had one good effect for the Allies. It showed the danger of divided command. It resulted in a closer understanding between the armies of France and Great Britain. That winter Sir John French resigned and Haig took his place. But this was locking the stable door after the steed was stolen. The world had witnessed Tur-

key chase the Allies into the sea, and had seen Bulgaria stride roughshod over Serbia. The failure of the Gallipoli campaign, coupled with the failure of the first Saloniki campaign, did much to prolong the war.

It was not until nearly three years later that Turkey surrendered to the Allies as the result of the Mesopotamian and Syrian campaigns. The first clause in the armistice was the opening of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus to the Allied Fleets. On November 9 British troops had again landed on the peninsula of Gallipoli and looked once more on these hillsides, still protected by barbed wire, the trenches of which were empty of men and the guns of whose forts were silent. On November 10 a British destroyer, followed by a French destroyer, cast anchor in the Golden Horn, their guns trained on Constantinople. On November 13 the Allied fleet steamed up the Dardanelles, beneath the forts whose guns had driven them back three years before, and in the early morning dropped anchor before Constantinople, two British battleships leading, then two French, two Italian, and a Greek vessel in the rear. Formal surrender of the famous "Gate of the World" was made to the British General, Sir Henry Wilson, placed in command of the Allied garrisons in the forts of the Dardanelles and of the Bosphorus. The goal, at last, was won. The key of the Near East was in the hands of the Allies.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE CRUSADERS IN JERUSALEM AT LAST.

The Caucasus Campaigns—Mesopotamian Campaign—The Kut-el-Amara Trap—Capture of Bagdad—Turkish Advance Toward Egypt—Failure of the Jehad—Campaign in the Holy Land—A Cavalry War—The Sacred City—Capture of Damascus—Situation of Persia.

THE futile invasion of the Gallipoli Peninsula by the Allies has hereinbefore been treated separately, for the reason that it had no effect on the fate of Turkey, and almost none on the war as a whole. It was very different with the other Turkish campaigns, sometimes incorrectly called "the campaigns of Asia Minor." Since Turkey was the chief factor upon one side, all these campaigns dove-tailed, more or less, into each other. Yet, as they were attacked from entirely different points by the Allies, and as their results operated in entirely different regions of the world, it will be better to consider each of them separately rather than to attempt to give the three simultaneously in their chronological sequence.

The campaign which will be treated first is that of the Caucasus; which was, for the most part, a campaign between Turkey and Russia, and centered around the famous fortress of Erzerum. The second campaign to be considered will be the Mesopotamian Campaign, which dealt largely with the oil question and England's sphere of influence on the Persian Gulf; this was a war between Turkey and the British, and was marked first by the English defeat at Kut-el-Amara and by the Allied capture of Bagdad. The third campaign began with the Turkish effort to start a Jehad or Holy War, striking at Egypt and the Suez Canal, but which turned to the conquest of Syria; this was a war between Turkey and the combined British, French and Arab forces, and resulted in the occupation of Jerusalem and the capture of Damascus.

The Caucasus conflicts were begun by the Armenians. The most cruelly misgoverned of all peoples of the world, constantly subjected

to plunder and wholesale massacre, seized the opportunity given by the opening of the world war to revolt against their Turkish masters. Every Armenian centre became a hot-bed of rebellion. Turkey responded with her customary atrocities and Armenia called on Russia for help.

Russia was preparing to invade Turkey, in any case, while Turkey was putting herself in readiness to seize Tiflis, the capital of the Georgians. The Turks had 140,000 men, well equipped and tolerably well officered, centered mainly at Erzerum and at Trebizond, the latter a port on the Black Sea. The Russians had 110,000 men, centered mainly at Kars and at Erivan, the latter a few miles north of Mt. Ararat, where legend declares Noah's Ark to have rested after the Deluge.

The Battle of Sarikamish.

As the mutual opposition of these three factors, Armenian, Turkish and Russian, combined to bring about one of the decisive battles of the war, the Battle of Sarikamish, the incidents of that engagement may be told briefly. On November 20, 1914, the Russians invaded Turkey, crossing the frontier near Sarikamish. They seized the Turkish town of Khoprikeui, thirty miles from Erzerum, and camped there. The Turks, lacking a railroad behind them, lost much time preparing to counter-attack. On December 14, however, the Turkish armies advanced and gave battle at four points. The Eleventh Turkish Corps attacked the Russians at Khoprikeui, and drove them back to Khorasan; the Tenth Corps crossed the mountains and threatened Sarikamish, the Ninth Corps advanced toward Kars, while two divisions of the First Corps marched from Trebizond through a blizzard toward Ardahan.

The Russians then threw their whole weight against the Tenth Corps, drove them back, isolated them in the mountains and cut them off. This flanked the Ninth Corps. The Russians attacked savagely and of the 40,000 men of that corps barely 6,000 Turks struggled through to Sarikamish, where, in spite of their losses, they assaulted the small garrison vigorously. The handful of Russians in the town resisted long enough to allow the main army to reëncircle the Turks and the rest of that army corps surrendered. The Battle of Sarikamish had annihilated one Turkish Corps, decimated another and broken up all the Turkish Campaign. The Eleventh Corps, however, was still

active and vigorous, and the Russians had to give over pursuit, to shorten their own lines.

The spring offensive resulted in a decided victory for the Russians near the Persian-Russian-Turkish border on April 20, 1915. On April 30, a set battle began at Janik, on the east of Lake Van, resulting in Turkish defeat, and on May 5, the important city of Van fell into the hands of the Russians, the Armenian peasants and villagers aiding the invaders to the utmost of their power.

This stimulated the Kurds and Turks to even more atrocious massacres of the Armenians than had before been attempted. On May 23, a joint official statement was made by all the Allied governments stating that "the inhabitants of a hundred villages near Van have been assassinated," and affirming that Turkey and each of her officials would be held personally responsible. The American ambassador told of one convoy of 18,000 women and children deported from their homes, of whom but 150 reached Aleppo.

Inhuman Treatment of Armenians.

"Day after day and night after night," wrote Ambassador Morgenthau, "the prettiest girls were carried away; sometimes they returned in a pitiable condition. . . . Any stragglers, the old, the infirm and the sick, were promptly killed. Whenever they reached a Turkish village, all the local vagabonds were permitted to prey upon the Armenian girls. . . . They had been so repeatedly robbed that they had practically nothing left except a few ragged clothes and even these the Kurds took; and the larger part of the convoy marched for five days almost completely naked under the scorching desert sun. For another five days they did not have a morsel of bread nor a drop of water. . . . Where there were wells, some women threw themselves into them. . . . The policemen forbade them to take a single drop of water. . . .

"I am confident that the whole history of the human race contains no such horrible episode as this. The great massacres and persecutions of the past seem almost insignificant when compared with the sufferings of the Armenian race in 1915. . . . Previous persecutions seem almost trivial when we compare them with the sufferings of the Armenians, in which at least 600,000 people were destroyed and perhaps as many as 1,000,000." As Mr. Morgenthau, the American

Ambassador, was a Jew, there is no reason to regard his figures as biased in favor of the Christian Armenians. In the English House of Commons the figures stated were "not under a million Armenians massacred in cold blood."

During this summer there were several sharp engagements between the Turks and Russians, with varying success on either side. In September, 1915, the Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievitch was sent down to the Caucasus in order that the Czar and his ring could more easily betray Russia in the west.

By midwinter Grand Duke Nicholas was ready for the attack. He planned nothing less than the capture of Erzerum, the Verdun of Asia Minor. The Russians had about 300,000 troops, the Turks about 200,000. On February 8, 1916, Nicholas advanced from three points, Olty, Sarikamish and Melazghert. A blinding snowstorm was raging, the temperature was 25 degrees below zero, and from Erzerum to the nearest Turkish railhead is 200 miles. After five days of fierce assault, the Siberian troops—of all soldiers those best adapted to such weather conditions—carried the outer forts. The fall of Erzerum on February 15, 1916, was of vast political influence in Persia and the Far East.

Conquest of Turkish Armenia.

Resting a while on this base, bringing up supplies, the Russians were ready to advance a couple of weeks later. On March 2, 1916, Bitlis, an important trade center, was taken, and a new menace put at the rear of the Turkish Army fighting against the British in Mesopotamia. Fighting now became tense all along the line, but Grand Duke Nicholas shifted his heaviest blows to the north, finally capturing the principal port of Trebizond on April 18, 1916.

There remained now but one more important point for the Russians to gain, that of Erzingan, the capture of which would open the way into the Asia Minor plains on the further side of the supposedly impassable barrier of mountains. On July 25, 1916, the strongly fortified city of Erzingan fell into Russia hands, completing the conquest of Turkish Armenia, and opening the way to Constantinople from the east.

It might be mentioned at this point that Russian armies had been operating southward toward Bagdad, through Persia. The city of Kermanshah, less than 200 miles from Bagdad, was taken on Feb-

ruary 27, 1918, and Kasr-i-Shir'n, 110 miles from Bagdad, on May 10.

At this point came three sudden surprises. The first was the smashing disaster to the British at Kut-el-Amara; the second was the unexpected anti-Russian attitude of the Persian Kurds, combined with a strong pro-German movement in the Persian government; the third was a notable stiffening of the Turkish Army, made possible by the British fiasco at Gallipoli..

The second theatre of war in Asia Minor was Mesopotamia. The first move was quick and successful. One of the most important points in the east, to Britain, is the main pipe line of the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, a main source of supply for the British oil-burning super-dreadnoughts. This comes down to Abadam, almost opposite the Turkish village of Sanijeh. On November 7, a brigade of white and Indian troops attacked the antiquated Turkish fort of Fao. By November 16 a fairly large body of troops landed, and on November 17 a Turkish force was met at Sahil and defeated. With the aid of river steamers, the town of Basra was taken on November 22. It was promptly prepared with defenses both as a land and naval base.

The First Mesopotamian Venture of the British.

On December 3, a small British and Indian detachment proceeded up the river to Kurna, fifty miles above Basra, where the Tigris empties into the old channel of the Euphrates, a point of strategic importance as it controls the Euphrates delta. The Turks promptly drove the British back. After this repulse, the British prepared to attack in force, and the date of attack was set for December 9. On December 6, however, Turkish officers appeared at the British camp and asked for terms. Conditions were refused and the Turks surrendered. The British intrenched heavily at Kurna, content with their first Mesopotamian venture since the oil pipe-line was safe, and all unwitting of the disasters which awaited them in the future.

In the Orient, prestige is one of the most important factors. Much of the intense difficulty which was sustained by the Allies during the four years of the war in this part of the world, was due to the British defeat at Ctesiphon by Turkish troops, which resulted in the bottling-up of General Townshend and his army at Kut-el-Amara, on the Tigris. This was another case of General Gordon and Khartoum. An American military expert hit off the situation very happily when he described

the reason of this disaster as "England's traditional blunder: sending a boy on a man's errand and being then forced to rush an army to the rescue of the boy."

The only authoritative statement made concerning the causes and character of the early part of the Mesopotamian campaign was made by Prime Minister Asquith before the British House of Commons on November 2, 1915. He said, in part: "The object of the expeditionary force, which originally consisted of only one division (about 50,000 men) in the autumn of last year (1914) in Mesopotamia, was to secure the neutrality of the Arabs, to safeguard our interests in the Persian Gulf, to protect the oil fields and generally to maintain the authority of our flag in the East."

British Defeated on Way to Bagdad.

On December 1, 1915, less than a month after Asquith's explanation, the British advanced toward Bagdad. They reached Ctesiphon, not anticipating alarming opposition, for, at that stage of the war, and in that outlying corner of the globe, air scouting was negligible. The British were depending mainly on cavalry scouts. Quite suddenly, at Ctesiphon, they found themselves faced by a powerful Turkish Army, of not less than 100,000 men. The British Army, which had been divided into two parts, one operating on the Tigris and the other on the Euphrates, and which, moreover, had been weakened by the necessity of leaving garrisons, and by sickness, did not have more than 30,000 men, more than a half of which were Indian native troops. The Turks did not await the attack. With that dash which distinguishes the Turk in actual war, they charged the British. Their artillery was German and the batteries were commanded and trained by German officers. The English were smashed back, with casualties of 6,800 men on the first day. By land, on the river bank and by river boats, the British were routed. The retreat was panicky, and when a halt was made at Kut-el-Amara, eighty miles to the southeast, nearly two-thirds of the English and Indian troops had been killed, wounded or made prisoners.

At this unfortunate juncture, the Australian and New Zealand campaign at Gallipoli came to an inglorious end, and the British forces abandoned all attempts on the Dardanelles. The immediate effect of this was to release 300,000 Turkish troops for action on other fronts. Of these men three divisions (150,000 men) were dispatched at once to Kut-

el-Amara, with the goal of investing the 10,000 British at that point and either capturing the post entire or starving the small force to surrender by means of siege. Still more dangerous, the defeat of the British gave the Turks and Germans an opportunity of convincing the Arab tribes that England's power was gone, and that, thenceforward, they should throw their alliance to the Central Powers. Such an alliance would vastly strengthen the Turko-German advance on Egypt and the Suez Canal.

In this desperate strait, England did as has been said—she "sent an army to save the boy." It became a race between the transport of Turkish troops from Constantinople to Bagdad, and of English troops from India up the Persian Gulf and the Tigris to Kut-el-Amara. Had the Constantinople to Bagdad (or the Berlin to Bagdad) railroad been completed throughout, the issue would have been certain at once. On the other hand, had the Russians been able to advance into the plain, the English force would have been relieved immediately. And it was all that General Townshend could do after his defeat at Ctesiphon on November 22, 1915, to intrench at Kut-el-Amara on December 5, repel all Turkish attacks and wait for relief.

Fighting in Water Waist Deep.

A strong British force reached Basra in December and started north up the Tigris on January 4, 1916. Two months' fighting brought them to Es Sinn, only seven miles away from Kut-el-Amara, but the Turks were heavily entrenched and the British attempt to storm the position resulted in failure. On March 8, the Turks counter-attacked and took part of the British trenches, but were driven out again. Lack of water and sickness in the troops compelled General Aylmen to fall back, Kut-el-Amara still unreached.

Then came the spring floods, submerging the land on either side of the Tigris for a considerable space, for the old supposed site of the Garden of Eden is a bottomless swamp in spring. None the less, on April 5, General Gorringe, who had succeeded General Aylmer, attacked Umm-el-Hannah, using seasoned troops who had served on the Gallipoli Peninsula. After fierce fighting the trenches were carried, and the Turks driven back on their main defenses at Es Sinn. But heavy rains and floods came to the aid of the Turks. Turkish reports stated that 3,000 British were trapped and either drowned or killed by their

exposure to Turkish fire. Both sides were wading in water to their waists. The British fought well and advanced steadily, but could only make a few hundred yards at a time, so stubborn was the Turkish resistance. General Townshend, in Kut-el-Amara, who had been communicating by wireless throughout the siege, now announced that his provisions were running low. Five months' siege had consumed them, even on short rations.

During the night of April 24, a relief ship was sent up the Tigris. It was a desperate venture, for the river banks were lined with Turkish guns. Moreover, during flood-times the bed of the Tigris changed constantly, like the Mississippi. The boat stranded. Another effort to get food to Kut-el-Amara by aeroplane was also a failure.

Surrender of General Townshend.

On the one hundred and forty-third day of the siege the following wireless report was received from General Townshend: "Have destroyed my guns, and most of my munitions are being destroyed. Officers have gone to Khali to say I am ready to surrender. I must have some food and cannot hold out any more." A few hours later came a second message: "I have hoisted the white flag over Kut fort and towns, and the guard will be taken over by a Turkish regiment which is approaching. I shall shortly destroy wireless." This surrender included "a force of 2,970 British troops of all ranks and services and some 6,000 Indian troops and their followers," close to 10,000 men in all. Then came the summer, rendering military operations impossible.

The legendary Garden of Eden, a rich alluvial plain, once was the fertile grain country of the great Empire of Babylon. It had degenerated into a swamp under Arabian and Turkish dominance. This, now, was drained by the British army engineers, highways were built and two railroads constructed, one up the Tigris banks towards Kut-el-Amara, the other up the Euphrates banks to Nasiriyeh, only ten miles from Kut. In this region the two rivers run parallel. "The Army sent to save the boy" now had become a veritable army. The troops decimated and weakened by the Mesopotamian summer were relieved and General Maude, a very able officer, took command. On December 13-14, 1916, General Maude drove in the Turkish defenses south of Kut. A few days later he reached the river, thus ensuring transport and supplies.

At this point General Maude changed the campaign into a cavalry war. On February 27, he struck simultaneously from no less than seven points: river steamers on the Tigris, river steamers on the Euphrates, infantry from the camps near Kut, infantry from advanced trenches north of Nasiriyeh, and immense cavalry detachments sweeping out to the northeast and southwest of the valley of the combined rivers.

The Turks were not ready for any such all-embracing plan and on February 28, 1917, Kut-el-Amara was occupied; on March 5, Lajij fell; on March 7, the Turks, supported by a couple of German regiments, stiffened on the Diala River, eight miles from Bagdad. Suddenly, upon them fell swarms of cavalry, and, a few hours later, light artillery. On March 11, Bagdad fell, and it was semi-officially announced that two-thirds of the Turkish guns had either been captured or thrown into the Tigris.

General Maude's Bagdad Proclamation.

Whereupon, General Maude, in a proclamation which for dignity the greatness of speech deserves to be quoted in its entirety, proclaimed that the British came to free the Arabs from the Turks that they "should prosper even as in the past, when your lands were fertile, when your ancestors gave to the world literature, science and art, and when the City of Bagdad was one of the wonders of the world. . . . You are not to understand that it is the wish of the British government to impose on you alien institutions . . . but institutions of your own which are in consonance with your sacred laws and your racial ideals. . . ." At the same time, Persia was also brought under British domination.

The summer of 1917 saw the steady strengthening of the British lines. The Russian Armies of the Caucasus, now reduced to the Kuban and Terek Cossacks and native Caucasians, all hereditary enemies of the Turks, succeeded in holding fast their defenses, possessing vast supplies of stores at Trebizond, Erzerum and Bitlis. Without military leadership, however, they could not advance. The chief value of the Caucasus Army lay in protecting the right flank of the British advance. Thus strengthened, General Maude annihilated the Eighteenth Turkish Army Corps near Samara on April 18, and the Thirteenth Corps on April 30, in the Jebel Hamrin Hills. Thus Mosul was

menaced when summer heat temporarily closed the campaign. It reopened on September 29, when Ramadie, on the Euphrates, was captured and another Turkish Army destroyed. Two months later General Maude died of cholera.

The next spring campaign was complicated by the Russian failure. The Turks marched north and retook all the territory seized by Russia, even occupying the Russian port of Batum. None the less, on March 10, 1918, the British entered Hit, and, on March 28, the Turkish Army at Hit was wiped out. Before the resumption of the autumn campaign in Mesopotamia, Turkey was on her last legs and Germany was on the run.

The third theatre of war was Syria, the Holy Land, and Egypt. The early part of this campaign began with the announcement of a Jehad, or Holy War, fomented by Germany. As, however, Mohammedans the world over were well aware that the Sultan of Turkey was but acting as the mouthpiece of Germany, and the Kaiser was not entitled to summon a Jehad, they refused to accept the call.

Turkish Army Defeated With Heavy Losses.

As easly as October 29, 1914, the Bedouins invaded the Sinai peninsula, and a small force occupied the Wells of Magdala on the road to the Suez Canal. This was a "bluff," intended to keep as many British troops as possible tied down in Egypt, expecting a second attack. Camels were collected in thousands, and during the next three months a Turkish force—hardly an army—prepared to attack the Suez Canal. On February 1, 1915, British outpost forces met the oncoming Turks in three columns, one directed at Kantara, near the Nile Delta; one near Ismailia, the railway junction to Cairo; and the third near Kubri, almost opposite to Suez.

The Turks had counted upon a revolt in Egypt and a mutiny among the Indian troops. Neither occurred. On the contrary, the Egyptians supported the English and the Indian troops fought well. In the three days' fighting, the British lost only 115 killed and wounded, while the Turkish losses were over 3,000. A third attempt was made by the Turks, on August 4, 1915, a division strong, but in the open terrain, machine-gun and rifle-fire was deadly, and more than half the Turkish Army was struck down almost without reply.

The winter of 1916 saw the relief of Kut-el-Amara, and the fol-

lowing March, 1917, witnessed the fall of Bagdad. Mesopotamia thus disposed of, Great Britain was willing to take up the Egypt-Syria campaign, and in June, 1917, General Allenby, a cavalry leader, was sent to take command.

By this time a very powerful German-Turkish front had been established from Gaza, on the Mediterranean Sea, to Beersheba. Railway extensions had been built to support this line and good highways built behind it. Gaza was entrenched with all the science born from German experience in modern war. The difficulties of transport from Egypt to this defensive line lay with the English, just as in former engagements in this section, the barrier of the desert had been the chief difficulty of the Turks.

General Allenby Enters Jerusalem.

On October 27, 1917, the Gaza defenses were bombarded from land, and by long-range naval guns from the sea, British and French battleships operating in unison. On October 31, the first infantry attack was made on the outer defenses surrounding Beersheba. The resistance was very stubborn, but the British and Indians took trench after trench, although with serious losses. On November 7, under the heavy artillery of land and naval guns combined, the garrison at Gaza found it could no longer hold out. The city was evacuated and the British entered the same day. On the 7th also, the centre of the Turkish defense line was broken by grenade and bayonet charges, and the British reached Tel el Sheria. Hebron was taken November 10. A stand was made on November 13 at Junction station, the main railway point of Palestine, due east of Jerusalem, but, although the going was sandy and difficult, good artillery handling not only brought the field guns through, but even two batteries of the "heavies" as well. The transport handling across the desert was marvelous. Junction station was occupied on November 14, and Joppa, on the seacoast, two days later. This cut the Turkish Army in two, without communications.

On the other side of Jerusalem, the Turks resisted stoutly, driving the English back, and on November 21, the British suffered a serious reverse. General Allenby, however, had handled his cavalry in such a way that the Turks did not dare follow up their advantage, and he had forced the two Turkish Armies into a double-pointed angle which hampered every move they tried to make.

The British commander, instead of trying to force the pursuit to the east, halted until all the positions taken had been thoroughly consolidated, until supplies had been renewed and his men and horses thoroughly rested, and then closed in on the roads controlling Jerusalem. On December 10 the British had isolated Jerusalem, and though there was firing from the outskirts of the city, not a shot was fired in return. Finally, on December 11, 1917, General Allenby made his entrance into Jerusalem.

Thenceforward the conquest went forward with a steady and careful swiftness which was the result of combined cavalry dashes and infantry consolidation. On February 21, 1918, Jericho fell, and by April 1, the British armies prepared to advance on Aleppo. On September 19, General Allenby renewed the campaign, breaking the whole Turkish line along a front of sixteen miles. Acting with the Hejaz Arabs as allies, the Turkish Army between the Jordan and the Mediterranean was annihilated on September 22, and on September 26 British cavalry reached the Sea of Galilee and occupied Tiberias.

The culminating point of the campaign arrived with the capture of Damascus on October 1, 1918. This, with the landing of French troops at Beirut, enabled the completion of the Aleppo movement, and that main point on the Constantinople-Bagdad Railroad was seized on October 26. Meantime, the Mesopotamian Army was marching on Mosul, and its fall could not be averted.

With Bagdad, Mosul, Allepo and Damascus in Allied hands, with Bulgaria collapsed, Austria tottering and Germany retreating, Turkey's doom was sealed. On October 31 she surrendered.

CHAPTER XVIII.

JAPAN'S PLACE IN THE SUN.

The Attack on Tsing-Tao—Capture of Kiao-Chau—German Prestige in the Orient Lost at One Blow—Conquest of Solomon, Caroline and Marshall Islands—The Surrender of German New Guinea—No Teuton Naval Base Left in the Pacific.

THERE was no uncertainty as to what side Japan would take in the world war, and no hesitation in declaring it. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance of 1905 provided for the maintenance of peace in Eastern Asia, and the preservation of the various "spheres of influence" held by the great powers in China, through the preservation of the integrity of the Chinese Empire. On August 15, 1914, Japan sent Germany an ultimatum demanding the immediate withdrawal or disarmament of all German warcraft in eastern seas, and the rendering up to Japan, by September 15, the entire leased territory of Kiao-Chau "with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China." Germany returned no answer, and at the expiration of the time set in the ultimatum, on August 23, 1914, Japan declared war.

Tsing-Tao, at the opening of the war, was a strongly fortified naval base, a city of 58,000, entirely Chinese and German. The military force in Tsing-Tao at the time of the Japanese declaration of war was but 5,000 men. Japan had a peace strength of 250,000 men and a war strength of 1,500,000. Also, the Japanese Navy was vastly larger than the German fleets in eastern waters. The day before the declaration of war, a fleet of a dozen first-class warships set out from Japan with transports carrying land forces of 22,980 officers and men.

The bombardment of the five great forts around Tsing-Tao began on August 26 and by September 1 Japanese blue-jackets and marines occupied several small islands in the bay. The first landing on Shan-tung Peninsula was made September 2, 10,000 troops being put ashore. This was not so much with the intent of direct attack as for the occupation of the leased territory. By September 13 the Japanese had

taken Kiao-Chau, twenty-two miles inland from Tsing-Tao. China protested, but Japan replied that the railway was a German concession, owned and operated by Germans. Torrential rains flooded all the streams and prevented the Japanese from definite land advance. On September 23 a small British force arrived from Wei-hai-wei.

The siege in proper, or rather the fighting therein, began on September 26, 1914, the English joined in on September 28 and by September 30 the outer fortifications were taken and Tsing-Tao was completely surrounded. A direct assault upon the city was made, but was vigorously repulsed. The Japanese commander, realizing that he could spare all the time necessary, made no second attack, but waited for his heavy artillery to advance, meanwhile settling his men down to strong defensive trenches.

German Possessions in the Pacific Captured.

During October mine-sweeping operations cleared Tsing-Tao harbor, so that the big British and Japanese battleships could stand in. The garrison refused to surrender, and on October 31 there began a concerted bombardment from the ships and from the Japanese heavy artillery, which had taken up strong positions commanding the city and which had secured the exact ranges. Every defensive and protective structure was smashed into flinders by the weight of metal. There was no need to waste lives, the artillery was all-sufficient. The Japanese waited until November 6 for their first assault. All positions were taken with ease. The grand assault, set for November 7, was equally facile, and Tsing-Tao fell on November 7, 1914, with total Allied casualties of less than 2,000 men.

There were several other important German naval bases and cable stations in the Pacific to be captured, however, and in this work the Australian and New Zealand ships of the British Navy took a leading part. German Samoa was the first point attacked by these forces. On August 15, 1914, an expedition sailed from New Zealand. As there were a couple of German battle cruisers known to be in those waters, the expedition steamed first for French New Caledonia, where three light British cruisers were waiting. On August 23 this fleet, now of considerable size, for a French battle cruiser and two Australian cruisers had joined it, reached Apia, on Upolu Island, off Samoa. New Zealand Marines were sent ashore, but there was no resistance.

"Samoa proved a walk-over," wrote a correspondent to the Sydney Bulletin; "not a gun, not a ship, not a mine. A bunch of schoolboys with Shanghais and a hatful of rocks could have taken it. The German fleet that was supposed to be awaiting us hadn't been around for eleven months. Seemingly the German fleet has gone into the business of not being around!" This was a trifle unjust, for that same German fleet gave a very good account of itself, as will be told in a later chapter.

Germany's Colonial Aspirations in the Pacific Defeated.

The Caroline Islands were first taken by Japan, but were turned over to New Zealand forces in September, 1914. The next important point to be attacked was German New Guinea and Bismarck Archipelago, together comprising an area of nearly 90,000 square miles, almost half the size of Germany. The Australian Naval Reserve captured the wireless station at Herbertshöhe in New Pomerania on September 12, 1914, after eighteen hours' bush fighting over a terrain of six miles. An Australian naval force, landing in German New Guinea, found much more vigorous resistance. The Australian Expeditionary Force decided to land the artillery. On September 13, however, Rahaul, the capital of German New Guinea, surrendered. Another party at Bougainville, in the Solomon Islands, took that point and captured there the governor of New Pomerania, who had fled thither. During October the wireless stations on the island of Yap and on Pleasant Island were taken over by British colonial expeditionary forces. The Marshall and Solomon Islands were likewise occupied on December 9, thus winding up the last of Germany's colonial possessions in the Pacific.

The importance of these apparently minor conquests is out of all relation to their size. Modern warfare must necessarily be connected with modern commerce. It is universally known that Germany's great desire was to extend her colonies. Colonial empire requires a navy. Modern warships—not being like sailing vessels—require large stores of coal or oil. No battleship can carry fuel for distant voyages. Therefore it is necessary to have coaling stations scattered all over the Seven Seas. Moreover, oceans are treacherous, and storms are beyond the mastery of man. Therefore it is necessary to have repair stations at naval bases all over the world.

Furthermore, in times of war, the movements of fleets can only be regulated by movements of other fleets and by advices from home, therefore it is necessary to have wireless stations all over the world. A powerful German Navy without naval bases would rust itself away in impotent rage. Without fuel for its engines, without food and water for the men, without the means of dry-docking, and without wireless communication, it would be helpless.

With German hostility thus turned inveterately against Australia and New Zealand, it is not surprising that the Parliaments of both colonies should have gone on record as declaring that the Pacific colonies of Germany should never be allowed to return to German hands. The German islands in the Pacific had an aggregate area of territory reaching 96,000 square miles, about the same size as England, Scotland and Wales. Their population was about three-quarters of a million. The exports were valued at over $22,250,000 annually, Kiao-Chau and Samoa being the most productive and valuable.

There was German retaliation, of course, such as the attack on Tahiti, but all these were purely naval matters and will be treated in later chapters. What is above all things important to remember is that English and Japanese landing parties, both in the nature of expeditionary forces, put an end to Germany's colonial aspirations in the Pacific within four months of the first declaration of war.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE HUN'S HAND LIFTED FROM AFRICA.

Campaigns in Togoland, Kamerun, and German East Africa—Rebellion in South Africa and the Campaign in German Southwest Africa—Teuton Barbarities in Her Colonies—Naval War 2,000 Miles From the Ocean—Boer Generals and Troops in the Dark Continent.

THE German possessions in Africa, as a natural procedure, became points of attack upon the opening of the world war. There were four of these colonies: Togoland, a country the size of Ireland, with 1,000,000 population, lying between the British colony of the Gold Coast and the French colony of Dahomey; Kamerun, a country almost as large as Germany, lying between the British colony of Nigeria and the French colony of French Congo, with a population of 2,750,000; German Southwest Africa, half as large again as Germany, lying between the Portuguese colony of Angola and the British colony of Cape Colony, its whole inland border confronting the British protectorate of Bechuanaland, with the small population of less than 100,000; and German East Africa, almost twice as large as Germany, lying between Portuguese East Africa and British East Africa, its hinterland facing the Belgian Congo, with a population of 7,750,000. All these colonies were of very recent annexation, mostly dating from 1884.

These colonies, since Germany was unable to protect them navally because of England's mastery of the seas, were open to land attack from the first. The various African campaigns, therefore, can be treated in four parts: the campaign in Togoland; the campaign for Kamerun; the campaign in German Southwest Africa, prefaced by the rebellion which was fomented in British South Africa; and the long and arduous campaign, almost worthy of being named a war, which was waged in German East Africa. To a far larger extent than was realized, the battles in Belgium, in France, in Serbia and in Poland, were battles waged for the winning of stakes in Africa and Asia. Had Germany been victorious, not only would the Allies have been forced to give up their gains, but, probably, Germany would have

demanded enormous tracts of territory that had been held by the Allied nations.

The campaign in Togoland may be dismissed in a few words. On August 8, 1914, a British cruiser appeared off the port of Lome, the capital of Togoland, cleared for action, and pointed her guns at the town. Lome surrendered without firing a shot. The main German wireless station was at Kamina near Atakpame, some hundred or more miles inland, on high ground, where the climate was less deadly, and to this point the German garrisons at Lome retired. A British force invaded Togoland from the west, a French force from the east, on August 8 and 9. Having occupied all southern Togoland, the Allies marched north and attacked the Kamina wireless station on August 25, driving the enemy from his intrenchments at once. On August 26 Atakpame was taken and the Germans surrendered unconditionally. The Germans had counted on the natives taking up arms against the British. On the contrary, the natives hailed the Allies as their saviors.

The British Repulsed in the Kamerun.

The Germans were outnumbered almost to the same extent in the Kamerun, but this proved a much tougher nut to crack. England, starting operations with too small a force, got a sharp whipping at the beginning. On August 8 a British detachment left Kano, in the centre of Nigeria, and, after a seventeen days' march, reached Tepe, a Kamerun frontier station. A sharp engagement followed and the Germans fell back. On August 29 the British reached the station of Garua, on the Benue River, the main fortified point of the hinterland, and attacked in force on August 31. A murderous machine gun fire met them and the native troops fled. The British officers retired to the trenches and there 21 out of 31 officers were killed, including the lieutenant-colonel in command. The remainder of the British and natives fled.

A second British expedition, which attacked the Germans at Nsanakong, fared no better and had to escape through the bush. A coast expedition succeeded in securing a foothold at Archbong, August 29, 1914, and the day after a German force successfully invaded Nigeria at Okuri. The first British attempt to take Kamerun by land had proved a dismal and utter failure.

The next attempt was by sea. After considerable mine sweeping,

the British cleared the channel to Duala, the capital of Kamerun. Under the cover of naval guns, the town surrendered and troops landed and took possession. The French seized one or two smaller ports on the coast. It took the Allies until October 26 to reach Mujuka, fifty miles in the interior. Buea, to which the German government had retired, was taken early in November, and in December the railway line fell into Allied hands. The German seat of government was then transferred to Yaunde, a point arduous of access and attack.

So extraordinarily difficult was this country that the Allies could never have conducted military operations there had it not been for the aid of the natives, who hated their German masters. Sharp fighting, though on a very small plan, was continuous and finally, on May 31, the British were ready to renew their attack on the important hinterland point of Garua. The forts fell on June 10, 1915.

Germany's Plans for a Rebellion in South Africa.

Meantime the French were steadily pushing on toward Yaunde, the new capital, reaching the outer defenses on August 11. General Dobell, in charge of the campaign, was not able to take the strong point, but intrenched solidly, awaiting junction with the other Allied columns, mainly British, which had been operating at Garua and Mount Banyo. The German forces, seeing that they were almost surrounded, escaped to the tiny stretch of territory known as the Spanish Congo, where they were interned by the Spanish authorities. On February 18, 1916, the German garrison at Mora, in the extreme north, capitulated, completing the conquest of Kamerun. The colony was put under the direction of French authorities for the duration of the war.

The conquest of German Southwest Africa was a very different matter. Grave political questions entered into its case. It will facilitate an understanding of the difficulties in German Southwest Africa if Germany's plans to create a rebellion in South Africa be made clear, for they came near to success. The tale has a romantic flavor, even though it is found in the supposedly dry-as-dust pages of the official South Africa "Blue Book."

This sober historic document deals with the visions, prophecies and dreams of one Niklaas van Rensburg who, several years ago, according to the report, "had beheld the number 15 on a dark cloud from

which blood issued, and then saw General de la Rey returning home without his hat. Immediately afterward came a carriage covered with flowers." This General de la Rey, so curiously envisioned by "The Prophet of Lichtenburg," had commanded the Lichtenburg burghers in the Boer War and thereafter had become President of the Western Transvaal Farmers' Association and the strongest man in the country. Pro-Dutch and pro-German farmers of the Transvaal, when the world war opened, saw a supposed fulfilment of the prophecy, realized a possible chance of revenge on England for the Boer War and counted on General de la Rey to lead a rebellion against British interests in the Union of South Africa.

General Louis Botha, a former Boer leader, and President of the South African Union (it is notable that the British Empire had a Boer as President of one of its largest colonies), sent for General de la Rey a few days before the meeting scheduled for August 15, the day of prophecy, and urged him to allay the excitement. The day came. Everything was ready for rebellion. All expected de la Rey to break out into a speech of flaming nationalism. Instead, the Western Transvaal leader urged prudence and advised his followers to await the turn of events in Europe. Stupefied by this action, the Afrikanders allowed a resolution to be put through endorsing the government of the Union of South Africa.

Conspiracy for Aiding German Ends.

There were two other leaders, however, who were only using the "prophet" as a means for aiding German ends. These were General Beyers and Colonel Maritz. They had received German promises that, in the event of a successful revolt and when Germany was victorious, the Free State and the Transvaal should be restored to independence. Accordingly, Beyers and Maritz stirred up the people by a false report that "the prophet" had declared that September 15, not August 15, was the date divinely set.

The place chosen by Beyers and Maritz for the outbreak of the rebellion was Potchefstroom. Over 1,600 armed men were in readiness. "There was an attempt to line up the prophet for theatric effect," remarks the official report with unaccustomed vividness of speech, "but, unfortunately for them, however, the seer declined to

leave his home, saying that 'it was not yet clear to him that that was his path.' ''

The signal for the revolt was to be the arrival of General Beyers and General de la Rey in the Potchefstroom camp. Beyers arrived on time, but on the appointed day, General de la Rey was only as far as Johannesburg. General Beyers, in a high-powered motor car, went to Johannesburg to fetch the leader.

The rest of the story reads like a dime novel, only it happens to be true. That very day, as it chanced, a police cordon had been thrown around the city to try to trap three notorious desperadoes, known as the ''Foster Gang,'' who had been operating in Johannesburg and who were known to have seized a powerful car. The police were instructed to stop all cars, especially any containing three men.

The Rebellion in Full Force.

As Beyers' car with the chauffeur and two generals whizzed out of town, it was twice challenged by the police and ordered to stop. But neither de la Rey, who had arrived that afternoon, nor Beyers, who had arrived ten minutes before, knew anything about the ''Foster Gang.'' They thought this summons to stop on the part of the police was an evidence that the British authorities had wind of their plan, and they ordered the chauffeur to put on full speed. When the car reached the outer cordon and refused to stop at a third policeman's summons, he fired at the wheels of the car. The bullet ricochetted and killed de la Rey.

Nothing more dramatic could have occurred. It was the ''15th,'' there was ''a dark cloud from which blood issued,'' General de la Rey did ''return without his hat'' and the ''carriage of flowers'' was the funeral cortège. The report ran like wildfire that General de la Rey had been assassinated by the orders of the British Government. The ''prophet'' was curiously justified in every point. Since he had further declared that Botha would offer no resistance and that the revolution would be bloodless, thousands of burghers joined the cause of Beyers and Maritz overnight. The rebellion was on.

The result of treachery soon showed itself. On September 26 Colonel Grant and a small force of African Rifles and Transvaal Horse Artillery were trapped by two German battalions while on their way to a water hole. All the gun crews were wiped out before the little

band surrendered, and it became known that Maritz had given the Germans the information which led to this disaster. General Smuts, Minister of Defense, ordered Maritz to give up his command. Maritz refused and sent an arrogant reply to the effect that he had made an alliance with Germany, which had ceded parts of the British territory (Whale Bay) to the South African Republic. General Botha replied by proclaiming martial law all through the Union on October 12, 1914.

By the beginning of November the situation was made much worse by the formation of a strong though ill-organized force under General de Wet, one of the famous guerrilla leaders of the Boer War and an old rival of Botha. He was an excellent fighter and a man of enormous popularity, but he possessed neither organization nor discipline. Yet, by November 5, there were 10,000 men under arms following either Beyers, Maritz or de Wet. These were in separate commands, awaiting heavy Teuton reënforcements from German Southwest Africa. There was more than a little suspicion that Holland had shown herself kindly disposed to the rebels.

The German-Made Rebellion Finally Put Down.

Generals Botha and Smuts found the mass of the Boers loyal, none the less, and soon had 40,000 men in the field, disciplined troops with full equipment. Notwithstanding, the situation was delicate. It would scarcely do to force the Boers to fight against their own kinsmen on behalf of the British. Botha abstained from forcing engagements, using his Boer troops mainly for the purpose of harrying the rebels, stopping their supplies and making life miserable for them generally, while, when any small armed clash was inevitable, he sent forward British detachments.

A battle of some importance was fought at Marquard, near Winburg, when General Botha defeated de Wet with heavy losses. Of the 2,000 men who had made a stand at Marquard it was reported that only 28 men crossed the Vaal River, the rest either were killed, wounded, taken prisoner or dispersed. Pursuit was close, however, and on December 1, 1914, General de Wet was captured and imprisoned for high treason. General Beyers was trapped on the Vaal River and tried to swim on horseback across under fire. He was seen to fall, but was drowned before any one could come to the rescue. The last sally made by the rebels was on January 24, 1915, under Maritz. They

were sternly repulsed and Maritz fled to German territory, where he was captured later. On February 3, 1915, the rest of the rebels surrendered, including "the prophet of Lichtenburg." The German-made rebellion in South Africa was over.

The conquest of Southwest Africa was not so much a British victory as a Boer victory. General Botha and General Smuts had principal charge of the campaign, Botha operating from the coast at Swakopmund, which was the port of Windhoek, the capital, and Smuts operating from the southern frontier. A small British army struck in from Luderitz Bay, and a second small Boer Army attacked along the Nababas Railroad. The difficulties of the campaign were immense, not because of German opposition but because of the difficulty of the country. The heat was terrific and the Germans, retreating, poisoned most of the wells. Botha's handling of transport, due largely to his thorough understanding of African conditions, was little short of miraculous. The total casualties for five months were under 2,000, including the men invalided home.

The War in German East Africa.

Details of the campaign are not important. Botha advanced very slowly on Windhoek, making the most elaborate precautions against counter-attack. A few were tried, but the old general was never caught napping. He took two months to clear away both lines of railroad. On April 17 General Smuts made a junction with the Second Army under Colonel Van der Venter at Kalkfontein. On April 24 the British under General Mackenzie reached the railroad at Aritetis, thus making a junction with Smuts' armies. By May 5 the combined British and Boer Armies reached Windhoek from the south, ready to join Botha, who was comfortably intrenched on the north and west. On May 10 Windhoek announced itself ready to surrender and on May 12 British and Boer forces entered the capital. The next six weeks were spent in chasing the remaining German troops from one place to another and on July 9, 1915, Dr. Seitz, the German governor, capitulated to Botha and Colonel Francke. It was a well-managed campaign, but a wholly one-sided affair. The Germans did not have a chance.

The campaign, or rather the war, in German East Africa was more serious, more difficult and more prolonged. Moreover, it was exceed-

ingly picturesque, giving rise to conditions of warfare such as had never been seen in the world before. To attempt to give the intricate topography of that huge country of German East Africa, and the details of the campaigns, would be out of proportion to their interest. A brief record will suffice.

The war opened with a vigorous effort on the part of the Germans to invade British East Africa and seize Mombasa, now a railroad terminus, but famous in history as that most woeful town in the world, which for decades had been the end of the Great Slave Road running from the interior of Africa, which had been beaten hard by countless naked feet trampling the blood-drenched earth. The army attacked in force, but was repulsed by a handful of British. In the end of October and November, 1914, the British having gained reënforcements from India, counter-attacked and seized the port of Jassin, from which, however, they were ousted by a large German force later. In the spring of 1915 there was heavy fighting around the shores of Lake Victoria Nyanza, in which, on the whole, the British gained distinct but not overpowering advantages.

Boer War Generals Faithful to England.

In that land of sleeping sickness and the tsetse fly, where malignant fevers of a dozen sorts abound, where the water seems to be especially designed to sicken white troops, the principal difficulty found both by the German and the British lay in keeping the soldiers in half-way fit condition. It was largely because of this, and in recognition of his splendid work in German Southwest Africa, that General Smuts, later in the year, was put in supreme command of all the forces operating in German East Africa. It was an outstanding monument to England's colonial policy that less than two decades after the Boer War she should be able to entrust her armies to the generals who had been the leaders of her foes.

General Smuts, more accustomed to African climates and conditions, began to put matters in motion without delay. He adopted the same tactics as those which had proved so valuable on the other side of the continent, pressing forward slowly from all frontiers, isolating the enemy in the centre and cutting him off from all possible points of supply. In this work, the Belgians (from the Belgian Congo to the west), and the Portuguese (from Portuguese East Africa to the south),

co-operated with the Boer and British troops working from the east and north.

By the beginning of June, 1916, the Belgians had reached the southern point of Lake Victoria Nyanza, thus capturing the whole Ruanda section, the German strongholds south of Tanganyika had been carried by the British, and the Boers and British had crossed the Kilimanjaro Range. Germany was fighting hard and cleverly, but both sides waged a cautious war, knowing the deadly effect of too great exertion in that climate and realizing that waste of ammunition would be fatal, owing to the unprecedented difficulties of transport.

General Smuts laid especial stress on the capture of the Usumbara Railroad running south from Mt. Kilimanjaro. Under General Van der Venter, this railroad was carried in two months' steady fighting and, after a most brilliant march across the famous Masai steppe, he came close to the Central Railroad, the goal of all the enclosing invasions. There was a three-day battle, May 9-11, 1916, with the main German Army, but General von Lettow-Vorbeck was forced back, fighting vigorously. The Boers marched on doggedly, pursuing the Germans by forced marches, and caught them at last on the Central Railway, which was straddled at Dodoma Station on July 29. Thence General Van der Venter, operating under General Smuts, drove east to Mpwapwa, defeating the enemy anew.

The End of German East Africa.

A glance at the map will show the importance of this, for, with the British fleet at Dar-es-Salaam, the ocean terminus of the railroad, and General Van der Venter at Mpwapwa, supplies could be sent both ways, the road cleared and a line of transport established to the centre of the hostile country. It was essential, however, to occupy Dar-es-Salaam, which was captured from the land side on September 4, 1916. One should not forget, also, the picturesque hauling of small motor boats, fitted with guns, half across Africa, for "naval battles" on the Victoria Nyanza, more than a thousand miles inland.

The beginning of the end came when on August 26, 1916, the forces of General Smuts entered Mrogoro, the seat of the German Provisional Government, and the few remaining German officials fled to the "Hunger Country," between the Ruaha and the Ruhnje Rivers. A swift pursuit in the Uluguru Hills cost the fleeing Germans nearly all their

artillery, but they broke away to the southeast. The Germans had no longer any hope of saving the colony, they only hoped to find some corner where they could intrench and defend themselves in the expectation that the Germans would enter Paris and that they could declare that German East Africa had not been conquered.

For more than a year they defied forces of twenty times their number. The Boers marched south from the Central Railroad, the British struck westward from the sea at Kilwa Kivinji and the Portuguese struck northward across the Ruvuma River. Yet the fragments of the German armies hid in the gullies of totally unexposed mountains, and lived as outlaws on the game of the country. The man-hunt became an epic. Not until December 1, 1917, was the official announcement made of the final conquest of German East Africa and the last inch of Germany's colonies was gone. The Hun's hand was lifted from the Dark Continent, made darker wherever it had pressed, and the flags of the Allies rose triumphant (save for a few small black independencies) from Cairo to the Cape, from the western to the eastern seas.

CHAPTER XX.

THE ARMED VIGIL OF THE NORTH SEA.

Great Britain Blockades Germany on the First Day—Submarine Mines and Mine-Sweepers—Affair of Helgoland Bight—German Sea-Power Becomes a Mockery—Bombarding Inoffensive Villages—The Battle of Jutland—The Plugging of Zeebrugge—Shameful Surrender of Fleet.

ON the day that the world war broke out, August 4, 1914, German sea-power was destroyed. It needed not the firing of a shot. The British Navy closed the North Sea to the Germans so swiftly, so efficiently, and with such a terrible preponderance of power that the Kaiser's great battleships were doomed to rust in the Kiel Canal until their shameful surrender at the end of the war. Once and for all, England showed that her title to "Mistress of the Seas" was absolute and inviolable.

Three principal factors entered into this crushing but silent defeat. The first was ships, the second was position, the third was men. Ship for ship and gun for gun, the British Navy alone, without her Allies, could have blown the combined navies of the Central Powers off the map, with the greatest ease. So far as position was concerned, she had all her home fleets in the North Sea and could compel the Germans to fight the question out in those narrow waters. So far as men were concerned, the British Navy was unlike anything else on earth; it was not a service, it was a religion, and officers and men were devotees. Besides which, the British Navy was made up of seamen, most of whom had spent their whole lives in the Navy, not of civilians who had taken a three or four years' course on a battleship.

Take the question of ships, first. England always maintained the theory of the two-power navy, just as Germany sought to maintain the two-power army standard. In other words, Britain at sea and Germany on land sought to have naval and military forces, respectively, larger than those of any other two European powers. At the same time, in naval matters, even more than in military questions, it is not number which determines strength, but power. A few years renders an old bat-

tleship obsolete, not because she is worn out, but because later craft have more speed, heavier armor and more powerful guns.

This can be reduced to simple terms. A ship which possesses both greater speed and heavier guns than her adversary, can pound that adversary to pieces at leisure and without a particle of danger. She can steam continuously just out of reach of the enemy's guns and land shell after shell upon the foe. The weaker guns of her foe cannot reach her, the lower speed of her foe will not permit the older vessel to close up to a range where the lighter guns will carry. Thus a Super-Dreadnought can make hay of a Dreadnought.

Germany did not begin to have a Navy until the Naval Armament Law was passed in the Reichstag in 1901. Thereafter she built quickly. But—and this is a very large "but"—Germany could only build ships after the British pattern. At best, even with her spies in the naval dockyards, she was therefore about two years behind England, for she could not learn the plans of new developments until England had worked them out. The most notable example of this was the *Dreadnought,* the famous ship which revolutionized all modern naval warfare, and the principle of which, in the two great sea battles of the world war, showed that England's judgment had been sound.

Germany Imitates Great Britain's Navy.

The essential principle of the *Dreadnought,* launched in 1906, was that of the all-big-gun-ship. British naval builders argued that secondary batteries (batteries of lighter guns) were unnecessary on a battleship. If all the weight were given to heavy guns, in turrets, she would either sink her enemy or have been sunk by the heavy guns of her enemy before the secondary battery could be brought into play.

A battleship did not fight as a unit. The fleet was the unit. Therefore a battleship's lighter guns should be mounted on lighter ships. This secret was so well kept (the *Dreadnought* was known as the "mystery ship") that it was not till she was actually in commission that the Germans learned about her. They at once commenced to imitate the plan, but they were three years behind. At the opening of the war they were still three years behind, and when the first ship of the *Queen Elizabeth* was launched they were four years behind. The ships that England launched during the war were heavy enough to demolish the German Navy in themselves, without considering the rest of the fleet.

When the war broke out, England had twenty-two Dreadnoughts and super-Dreadnoughts against Germany's sixteen. All were in home waters. In super-battle-cruisers, England had nine and Germany three, but four of the British ships were in foreign waters, and one German vessel was abroad, leaving the North Sea fleet five battle-cruisers to two. In super-ships, then, the proportion was 27 to 18. Three of the German ships, the *Konig,* the *Grosser Kurfürst* and the *Markgraf* carried ten 12-inch guns, a great deal weaker than the 13.5-inch of the British *Iron Duke* class, but half a knot faster. During the war, England put five ships of the *Queen Elizabeth* class in the water, all with 15-inch guns. These latter ships had a speed of 25 knots against the 23 knots of Germany's heaviest ships. Thus the British Navy, at any time in the war, could outnumber, outrange, and outrun the German fleet. Germany could neither afford to fight nor run away.

The British Naval Fleet's Great Advantages.

Under these circumstances, Germany's only chance would be naval strategy. She would have to put the British Navy in a battle-line for bad manoeuvring. This she could not do, because England had the advantage of position. The North Sea is small, and there are only two ways out of it, one to the north, between Scotland and Norway, the other, through the Straits of Dover, between England and France. The distance between the Orkney Islands and Norway is only 300 miles across, the distance between the French and English coasts is only 21 miles across. This left Germany only three alternatives: (1) to fight a general engagement in the North Sea; (2) to break out to the north; (3) to break out to the south.

Considering the efforts to break out, first. A couple of days before war was actually declared, that is to say, when it had become sure that war could not be averted, Admiral Jellicoe had gathered at a naval base in the Orkneys twenty-two Dreadnoughts and super-Dreadnoughts, a unit in itself heavy enough to outweigh the whole German Navy. In the Firth of Forth Admiral Beatty had five of the Super-Battle Cruisers, the class known as "the Cats," together with the most powerful of the light-cruiser squadrons and a destroyer flotilla.

The distance from the middle of the line between Scotland and Norway was approximately 150 miles from Jellicoe's base, 300 miles

from Beatty's base, and 500 miles from Helgoland, Germany's nearest base. If, then, the Germans started from Helgoland, Jellicoe would have plenty of time to cork up the outlet and give battle, and Beatty would have plenty of time to take the German Navy in the flank and rear and pound all the smaller supporting vessels of the fleet to pieces. If the Germans detached a part of their fleet to fight Beatty, then they would be even still more hopelessly outnumbered by the heavy battleships under Jellicoe.

Consider, next, the possibility of breaking out through the Straits of Dover. From Helgoland to the straits is 350 miles, from the Firth of Forth 400 miles, and the Orkneys 500 miles. Here the Germans had a start, and on a foggy night they could slip down the Holland and Belgian coasts and get a good lead on the northern fleets. But, on the other hand, in the estuary of the Thames, 25 miles from the straits, Great Britain had collected all her pre-Dreadnought battleships, her armored cruisers, a flotilla of modern destroyers, and the old torpedo-boat fleet, to say nothing of submarines.

The Naval Policy of Great Britain.

It is true, as has been shown, that the German Dreadnoughts, super-Dreadnoughts and Battle Cruisers could make hay of these old ships, at long ranges. But suppose Germany tried to break through by mass-formation, in three- or even four-column line, nothing would be easier than for the English to strew the sea with floating short-life mines, and the German ships would be targets for torpedoes that could hardly be missed. The Teutons could not send out destroyers as a shield, for destroyers are not armored, and the pre-Dreadnought guns would punch holes in them like a pepper-box. Being compelled to steam straight, because of the narrowness of the channel, the extra speed of the destroyer—which is its sole protection—would avail nothing.

If, to speak of the third possibility of attack on the Straits of Dover, the German super-Dreadnoughts lay off at long range and commenced to pound the older fleet at its leisure, the operation would take considerable time, twenty-four hours at the least. But Beatty's destroyer flotilla would be down in fourteen hours and his Super-Battle-Cruisers in twenty hours. The Germans would be attacked in the rear again, and long before they could dispose of Beatty's fleet, Jellicoe

would have come up, and the Germans would be encircled by three fleets.

This same condition prevailed in the event of the third alternative, namely, a Grand Fleet engagement in the North Sea. If the Germans could be tempted out by the bait of a few small ships, if a squadron could be decoyed away from its naval base, then, maybe, the whole fleet would issue in support, but, even in that case, a flank attack could also be made to cut off Germany's retreat, and if the retreat were definitely cut off, then all three British fleets could sally out to send every German craft to Davy Jones.

The British naval policy was of the simplest, therefore. It consisted of three things: to cork the north and south outlets of the North Sea, to keep a constant and heavy patrol on vigil against raids, and as scouts in the event of a German dash, and to control blockade-running to German or supposedly neutral ports with contraband of war. Thus Germany's only hope became the mine and the submarine.

There were only two North Sea engagements of any consequence, the Battle of the Bight of Helgoland, and the Battle of Jutland Bank. The Battle of the Bight was simply a decoy engagement, to test the strength and combativeness of the enemy.

On August 24, 1914, British submarines on scouting duty reported that there was a large force of German destroyers and light cruisers lying at anchor under protection of the guns of the Helgoland forts. Jellicoe decided to see if he could decoy these out, then pounce on them from the rear, and inflict as much damage as possible. It was to be a cruiser action.

Decoy Plan of the British Successful.

A British submarine flotilla, accompanied by two destroyers, the *Lurcher* and the *Firedrake,* were to steam to the northwest past Helgoland. If chased, they should continue to the northwest, in which direction lay a strong Battle-Cruiser fleet. Due west lay a squadron of light cruisers, with the *Arethusa* and the *Fearless* considerably in advance and detached from the rest of the squadron, but accompanied by a flotilla of destroyers. Southwest lay another squadron of light cruisers. If the decoy was successful, as soon as the British submarine flotilla had cleared Helgoland, the *Arethusa* and the *Fearless* were to steam due east, thus coming in on the rear of the German

vessels which had come out of Helgoland Bight to chase the submarines. A running fight should be made northwestwards, which would decoy the Germans into the range of the powerful guns and speed of the Battle Cruisers. Should a formidable German force come out, the British light cruiser squadrons to the west and southwest should close in after the *Arethusa* and the *Fearless*.

The affair came off exactly as planned. On August 28, 1914, the eight British submarines, three awash and five submerged, accompanied by the destroyers *Lurcher* and *Firedrake,* steamed past the island fortress. A German destroyer came out and had a look, then wirelessed in for the rest of the flotilla. Twenty-one German destroyers shot out of the bay at full speed after the submarines. A German seaplane circled up, and, probably, saw the British cruisers in the distance, for, immediately after, a German squadron of light cruisers moved out to support its flotilla of twenty-one destroyers.

The Battle of the Bight of Helgoland.

The *Arethusa* and *Fearless* played their assigned part in cutting off the chase of the German cruiser squadron, but speedily found themselves in trouble. The German cruisers *Ariadne* and *Strassburg* concentrated their fire on the *Arethusa* and had her partly crippled, when the *Fearless* came up and drew the *Strassburg's* fire. At almost the same time a shot from the *Arethusa* carried away the bridge of the *Ariadne* and killed her captain. By this time, scouting German destroyers reported other British cruisers in the vicinity, and the *Ariadne* and *Strassburg* sheered off to the protection of the fortress, while the *Fearless* towed the *Arethusa* (which was on fire, and in a bad way), out of the scene of action.

Meanwhile the destroyer flotillas had not been idle. The German destroyer *V-187* dashed straight at the British destroyers, her flotilla behind her, but she was unready for the weight of steel which poured from the decks of the British destroyers, and she went down in a few minutes, her guns firing until the last minute, even until her decks were below the water and the water began to run into the muzzles of the guns. During the lull in the action, which lasted for about an hour until ten o'clock, the British destroyers, *Goshawk* and *Defender,* turned around and went to pick up the German survivors of the *V-187,* who were clinging to the wreckage. The German light cruiser *Mainz*

came out to chase away these destroyers, and advanced so quickly that the men in the boats, at the rescue work, could not get back to their ships. In this predicament, suddenly beside the small boats popped up the British submarine *E-4,* opened, took the men aboard, and submerged. It was like a rescue in a fairy tale.

The next phase in the battle came as a result of wireless calls for assistance from the destroyers *Lurcher* and *Firedrake,* with the decoy submarines, who stated that they were being chased by fast German light cruisers. The *Arethusa,* having put out the fire on board and made some repairs, though still in a shaky state, turned with the *Fearless* to give battle again. Then, out of the mist popped the protected cruiser *Strassburg,* and the *Arethusa* and *Fearless* sent wireless calls for the battle cruisers in the northwest. Meantime the *Strassburg* inflicted still more damage on the *Arethusa,* but got badly handled herself from the guns of the *Fearless* and the destroyers. The German cruisers *Koln* and *Mainz* came to the aid of the *Strassburg.* This made things look bad for the British, when down from the north bore two modern light cruisers, the *Falmouth* and the *Nottingham,* and the *Strassburg* made off towards Helgoland, badly crippled.

Victory for the British.

This left the German *Mainz* and *Koln* against the two new foes, *Falmouth* and *Nottingham,* as well as the *Fearless* and the almost useless *Arethusa.* The odds were too great and a concentrated fire on the *Mainz* began to tell. Then, majestically, appeared one of the "Cats," the battle cruiser *Lion,* and all the chance for the *Mainz* was over. Fire broke out in her hold, the machinery stopped and a torpedo promptly finished her. She sank slowly, the Germans on her decks in perfect discipline to the last.

By now the *Queen Mary,* of the same class as the *Lion,* appeared on the scene and went after the *Koln.* Against the super-battle-cruisers, with their high speed and 13.5-inch guns, the *Koln* had no chance. She sank under the heavy shells so quickly that British small boats coming up to the rescue found not a man afloat. The *Ariadne* fled, but was reported to have sunk before reaching port. Aside from loss in destroyers, the Germans had lost the *Mainz, Koln,* and probably the *Ariadne,* while the *Strassburg* was little better than a wreck. The British had not lost one major ship, but the *Arethusa* was in al-

most as bad a condition as the *Strassburg,* and the *Fearless* was badly knocked about. In terms of naval losses, the Germans had lost two ships, the British none. This confirmed the German naval officers in their decision to keep their fleets indoors.

Two raids were successfully made during foggy weather on the English coast, Lowestoft and Yarmouth, two fishing villages, being bombarded on November 3, 1914; and Hartlepool and Scarborough being bombarded on December 16, 1914. This was a purely unnecessary, useless, unjustifiable attack on the civilian population, women and children mainly being the victims, and it gained for the Germans the name of "baby-killers."

The third raid was not so successful, from the German point of view. This was a mixture of raid and decoy. The German fleet was of good size and the ships were fast, but the English had still heavier and faster ships, the four "Cats" and light cruisers besides. On being discovered, the Germans turned toward Helgoland. One German ship, the *Blucher,* was sunk, after a gallant fight, and the British flagship, the *Lion,* was crippled and towed home. The Germans had concentrated all their fire on her, both because of her position and because the sinking of the flagship would be the greater victory.

The Battle of Jutland Bank.

Sometimes an admission of ignorance is strength. The writer, therefore, does not hesitate to admit a certain amount of ignorance about the Battle of Jutland Bank. There is every indication that the true story of the Battle of Jutland Bank will remain more or less confused. The reader, therefore, is asked to regard the following account as a skeleton, since it states only those facts that are known and admitted by both sides.

The Battle of Jutland Bank was fought in the afternoon and evening of May 31. The Grand Fleets of both sides were engaged in the movements of manoeuvre, though not all were in the action. The lead in the entire affair was taken by Admiral Beatty's Battle Cruiser Squadron, consisting of the four "Cats," the *Lion, Princess Royal, Queen Mary* and the *Tiger.* Behind Beatty were two ships of the Second Battle Cruiser Squadron, the *Indefatigable* and the *New Zealand.* Still further astern were the four Queen Elizabeth class battleships, the *Barham, Valiant, Warspite* and *Malaya,* forming the Fifth

Battle Cruiser Squadron, under Admiral Evan-Thomas. The main British Grand Fleet, under Admiral Jellicoe, lay from fifty to sixty miles to the north.

At 2.30 in the afternoon light cruisers sighted the enemy, and a scouting seaplane returned with the news that a German battle-cruiser squadron was in sight, consisting of the *Derfflinger, Lützow, Moltke, Seydlitz* and *Von der Tann,* under Admiral von Hipper. The opening of the battle was that a British Battle Cruiser Squadron of six ships met a German Battle Cruiser Squadron of five ships, and that the Germans turned south to come under the protection of their own guns, fighting, however, a running fight as they did so. The English Battle Squadron of Queen Elizabeths, having but 23 knots speed to the 25 knots of the battle cruisers, fell behind.

Details of the Jutland Bank Battle.

The First Phase of the Battle of Jutland Bank was that portion of the engagement between the time Beatty and von Hipper sighted each other until the time that the two battle cruiser lines came within reach of the German High Seas Fleet. Firing began at 18,500 yards' distance at 3.48 P. M., and between the two lines of huge battle cruisers, thus over ten miles apart, sharp fighting began between smaller ships, light cruisers pounding light cruisers and destroyers stabbing at each other.

The German marksmanship was of the first rank at the beginning. The *Indefatigable,* hindmost of the six battle cruisers, was struck at 3.55, seven minutes after the action commenced, and blew up. At 4.08, the four Queen Elizabeth battleships, led by the *Barham,* which had saved some miles from cutting across the corner, opened fire at 21,000 yards range. Visibility was low, however, and the shooting was bad. At 4.18 the *Queen Mary* suddenly blew up, in exactly the same manner as the *Indefatigable.*

(The British Admiralty declined to state the cause of the disaster to these two ships, other than to say it was not due to a mine, a torpedo, an enemy's shell or to unstable explosives on board. Even after the end of the war the matter was still kept an Admiralty secret.)

At 4.42 the German High Seas Fleet was sighted in the distance, and Beatty realized that he could not afford to run slap into them. He turned northward, hoping that von Hipper would follow him, now

that he had made a junction with his battleships. Thus Beatty, in his turn, planned to decoy the pursuing Germans into the arms of Jellicoe and the Grand Fleet. So ended the First Phase.

It is evident, then, that in this First Phase the British were whipped and whipped badly. At the beginning they had six battle cruisers to four, and before the middle of the phase they had six cruisers and four battleships to four cruisers, yet the Germans sank (or *something* sank) the *Indefatigable* and the *Queen Mary,* while only the third ship of von Hipper's line was seen to be on fire.

The Second Phase of the battle was the northward turn and movement to meet Jellicoe. Since the speed of the battle cruisers was far higher than that of Evan-Thomas' battleships, as soon as the turn was made, the gap between Beatty and Evan-Thomas opened wide. This was intentional, for the four heavy Queen Elizabeths were expected to stand off the main German fleet until Jellicoe could reach the line, at which time the whole super-Dreadnought Grand Fleet could fall into line-of-battle behind Beatty and in front of Evan-Thomas. At the same time, Jellicoe's three battle cruisers, the *Invincible, Inflexible* and *Indomitable,* under command of Admiral Hood, were sent due south at full speed to take the head of the line in advance of Beatty and relieve the "Cats" a little.

Terrific Engagement Rages.

The four Queen Elizabeths, by reason of their heavy armor, although they had to face the whole force of von Hipper's battle cruiser squadron and the fire of the leading battleships of von Scheer's fleet, stood the punishment bravely. The English gunners were settling to the work, and hits were being registered on the enemy. On the other hand, as the battle stiffened, German shots went wild.

By 6.15 the three battle cruisers under Admiral Hood swung in front of the *Lion,* the *Invincible* then being the head of the longest battleline of the heaviest ships that the world ever saw. Yet she had hardly taken her place at the head of the line before there came an explosion as though a volcano had erupted, and the *Invincible* disappeared in a murk of smoke and flame. The explosion was similar to those on the *Queen Mary* and the *Indefatigable.* On the other hand, one of von Hipper's battle cruisers was seen to be missing.

Just about 7.00 P. M., the Grand Fleet, steaming at full speed,

dropped into its place between the widely separated fleets of Beatty and Evan-Thomas, and the head of the German column suddenly found himself under the guns of the whole British fleet. At the same time, Beatty, with the two ships of Hood's squadron in front of him, had succeeded in heading off the German line, or "forming a cap," as it is navally known. Another of von Hipper's cruisers went down.

The German commander, von Scheer, moved quickly. Swinging each ship independently, he turned from easterly course to westerly and threw his whole force of destroyers at full speed against the British line to cover the turning movement of his capital ships. Jellicoe responded in kind and a most terrific destroyer battle was waged, in which the British immediately showed themselves the masters. This quite unexpected manoeuvre brought the German fleet suddenly within range of the four light-armored cruisers, the *Duke of Edinburgh*, *Defence*, *Warrior* and *Black Prince*, who ought to have been well out of the way of any such encounter. The Germans opened fire at short range. The *Defence* and *Black Prince* sank at once. The *Warrior* sank trying to make port. The *Duke of Edinburgh* escaped.

The foggy night closed down, studded with destroyer attacks, in which the British claimed that they sank two German capital ships and the Germans denied the claim. The British naval authorities were a unit in declaring that the German official account did not state its full losses (a very typical German habit), but, none the less, the German Admiralty admitted the loss of the battle cruiser *Lutzow*, the battleship *Pommern*, and the light cruisers *Wiesbaden*, *Frauenlob*, *Elbing* and *Rostock*. Of positive knowledge, however, two other battle cruisers were sunk and one more battleship of the Thuringen class.

The Battle of Jutland Bank was the most decisive and indecisive naval battle in history, decisive in that it frightened the Germans from ever daring to come on the sea again, indecisive because of the character of the action in itself.

Its real result came on that day of shame and humiliation, November 21, 1918, when the German High Seas Fleet, in performing the Most Supreme Act of Cowardice known in the history of the sea, tamely steamed to the shores of the British Isles and surrendered without a blow. The first and main detachment held the *Bayern*, Germany's latest battleship, a copy of the Queen Elizabeth Class, as usual, imitated three years late, the *Grosser Kurfürst*, *Markgraf* and *Kronprinz*.

the *Friedrich der Grosse, König Albert, Prinz-regent Luitpold, Kaiser* and *Kaiserin.* The battleships were followed by the battle cruisers *Derfflinger, Hindenburg, Seidlitz* and the *Von der Tann.* Then came seven light cruisers and fifty destroyers. There were five great warships flying the Stars and Stripes in the grim line of Allied vessels receiving the surrender.

And, crowning infamy, so low had the world's belief in German honor fallen that the Allied fleets were cleared for action, their guns bore on the surrendering vessels, ammunition was in the turret hoists, and the gun crews were at their posts. No one could trust to German honor. There was rejoicing that day in all lands where the German hand had lain, everywhere but on the sea. But sailors, all the world over, felt that sailordom was in some strange and terrible way befouled by this ignoble action.

"I'd hoped," said a British naval officer, "that they'd have scuttled the ships half way across and gone to their deaths like men. But they're not that breed!"

At sundown that day, the German flag was hauled down from German warships in a British anchorage and the naval crews which had brought them over slunk back to their disgraced homes.

CHAPTER XXI.

NAVAL GUNS SWEEP THE MEDITERRANEAN.

Austria Bottled Up by the French Navy—The "Goeben" and the "Breslau" a Romantic Ruse of the Sea—British Bombardment of the Dardanelles—The Italian Fleet and Its Operation on Pola and Durazzo—The Central Powers Barred for Europe's Great Inland Sea.

JUST as the British Navy undertook to guard the northern coasts of France, so the French Navy assumed a major place in the protection of British possessions in the Mediterranean against the German and Austrian navies. When the war broke out, Germany had but two warships in the Mediterranean, and Austria, though she possessed nine battleships, was in no position to do battle with France, whose navy ranked as the fourth largest in the world.

The two German vessels in the Mediterranean, however, began the war in most exciting fashion. These were the *Goeben,* a modern high-powered battle cruiser, with ten 11-inch guns and a speed of 28 knots. France had four battleships of the *Jean Bart* class, but while these carried 12-inch guns, their speed was not over 20.5 knots, so that the *Goeben* could hit and run away. The other German vessel was the *Breslau,* a light cruiser of high speed, but light armor and small gun-power. Both vessels were remarkable for their fuel capacity.

The war began on August 4, 1914. That evening British and French warships, knowing that the *Goeben* and *Breslau* were off the coast of Algeria, started to give battle. The German commander, realizing that his location was known, put the ship's band on a raft, ordering them to play German national airs. The battleships hunted for the raft—a hard thing to find at night in mid-sea—and the *Goeben* and *Breslau* escaped.

They entered the neutral port of Messina, Italy, next day. The officers went ashore, made their wills, gave up their valuables to the German consuls, and, since the Italian authorities would not allow them to stay there more than 24 hours, according to international law, the two German vessels sallied out that night, their decks cleared

for action, going, as every man on board believed, to their deaths. The British and French fleets had taken up positions at either end of the Straits of Messina. They did not come within the three-mile limit for fear of international complications. With cunning navigation, the Germans felt their way along the shore, escaped detection, in spite of the enemy's searchlights, and, when day came, steamed at full speed for Constantinople.

Only the British light cruiser *Gloucester* spied them, and, greatly daring, she opened fire on the powerful *Goeben,* which could have eaten her up. The German commander, however, could not risk the chance of being disabled, even slightly, by a chance shot, when he had a powerful fleet at his heels, and so he sheered off from the engagement and two days later steamed through the Dardanelles. Without delay the ships were formally sold to Turkey, a violation of international comity. This was, practically, the casus belli under which Turkey was brought into the war. The *Goeben* and *Breslau,* later, aided the Turkish forts in the defence of the Dardanelles and, still later, took part in the bombardment of Russian ports. But their fate was yet to come. On January 20, 1918, they made a sortie from the Dardanelles and ran into a fleet of British monitors, the tanks of the sea. The *Breslau* was sent to the bottom and the *Goeben* so badly injured that she had to be beached.

The Dardanelles Forts Attacked.

The bombardment of the Dardanelles forts, the only important fleet action in the Mediterranean during the world war, was against all naval precedent. The Russo-Japanese War had shown that land forts had a tremendous advantage, but the British and French felt that such guns as the *Queen Elizabeth's* 15-inch monsters more than outrivalled the advantage that land mounting gave to cannon of smaller calibres. The action began on February 19, 1915. The fleet was of great size and strength, and naval confidence in the long-range guns was at first justified, for, by firing from a range outside the farthest carrying power of the shells of the forts, the land defenses were battered down. The outer forts of the Dardanelles, such as Kum Kale on the Asian side and Cape Hellas on the European side were soon silenced.

This allowed some mine-sweeping to be done, and on February 26, the battleships were ready to attack the straits themselves. This was a bombardment of a very different order, for, in order to be able

to attack, the ships would have to come within the range of the fort guns. On March 3 and March 4 a determined attempt was made to silence the land defenses by French and British ships which entered the straits, but, though the forts were struck many times and the vessels badly hammered, the forts were not put out of action nor were any of the ships sunk. On March 7 the *Agamemnon* and the *Lord Nelson* made a desperate charge and silenced two of the smaller inner forts. Both ships were struck and losses were heavy, but neither of the craft was put out of action.

Finally, on March 15, the main attack was made with the combined efforts of all the heavier ships. It may be interesting to show how powerful an attack this was. The battleships, *Agamemnon, Prince George, Queen Elizabeth, Lord Nelson, Triumph* and *Inflexible* steamed fairly up into the Narrows and attacked Chanak. An hour later the French battleships *Suffren, Gaulois, Bouvet* and *Charlemagne* joined in the fray, and with splendid dash, ran into still closer range. This gave room for six more battleships, the *Ocean, Swiftsure, Majestic, Albion, Irresistible* and *Vengeance,* who tried to plunge further in. None of these had smaller armament than 12-inch guns.

The Attack Unsuccessful.

The Turks settled to their work and sent down quantities of floating mines. The *Bouvet* was struck by a mine and also received three heavy high-explosive shells, and sank, carrying most of her crew with her. The *Irresistible,* badly crippled by shell-fire, also ran into a mine; a destroyer took off her crew, but she sank that evening. The *Ocean* went to the bottom from a mine and shell-fire. The *Gaulois* was put in a bad way, with a hole between wind and water and her upper works shot into splinters. The *Inflexible* had been set on fire, most of her officers were killed or wounded, and she had to fall out of the line. At the end of the day the forts were firing—if not as strongly as ever, at all events, with terrible accuracy and penetration. The attempt to force the Dardanelles had failed.

Afterwards, a story went abroad that the forts had used nearly all their shells and that if the attack had been repeated next day it would have been successful, but the Germans and Turks deny the story and there is no manner of proving it. In any case, the British and French commanders, without accurate knowledge of that fact, would

not have been justified in exposing their fleets to such a terrible hammering as they had received. The Great Naval Powers had done their uttermost, and proved that, given enough shell for the land forts, the Dardanelles could not be forced.

Other naval engagements in the Mediterranean were without important effect in the world war, for Germany was impotent except for her submarines, and Austria was made helpless by the entrance of Italy and the Italian Navy into the war. There were many romantic incidents, such as the cutting of the great steel mine-holding cables that guarded the harbor of Trieste by an Italian lieutenant in a motor boat, and the consequent blowing up and sinking of two Austrian battleships, the *Monarch* and the *Wien,* at anchor there, by torpedoes launched from a second motor boat. Such events as these, however, had little effect on the great conflict itself.

As long as the Mediterranean was kept open for trade, as long as transports could carry soldiers to Avlona and Saloniki, as long as the Suez Canal and Gibraltar were unchallenged, as long as troops could cross from Algeria to France without fear of a hostile fleet, so long were the fleets of France, England and Italy doing their needed bit to establish the cause of the Allies in the world. The submarine menace roved there, as it roved over the seas, but that is a matter to be dealt with separately.

The capture of Pola and Durazzo gave the death-blow to Austria's naval hopes. France and Italy blocked the Austrian Navy and compelled it to skulk in land-locked harbors, just as the British Navy had shaken its fist in the face of the German Navy and dared it to come out and give battle. As naval factors, the Central Powers proved themselves insignificant, and nowhere was their failure more noticeable than in the Mediterranean, which in his blind arrogance before the war, the Kaiser had marked down for his own.

CHAPTER XXII.

HUNTING DOWN THE MODERN PIRATES.

The Tropical Adventures of the Konigsberg—The Emden, the "Terror of the East"—Australians Make the Germans Walk the Plank—The Fight Off Coronel—Von Spee's Defeat of an English Fleet and the Terrible Revenge of the Battle of the Falklands.

SUCH forms of commerce raiding, and especially commerce raiding on neutrals, as were practiced on the high seas by Germany during the world war outdid the blackest deeds of the buccaneers. Actions such as the sinking of the *Lusitania* "represent not merely piracy," as ex-President Roosevelt said, "but piracy on a vaster scale of murder than old-time pirates ever practiced. It is a warfare against innocent men, women and children traveling on the ocean."

At the same time, it is to be remembered that there is such a thing as legitimate commerce raiding. According to international law, a naval vessel has a right to capture and make a prize of any vessel belonging to an enemy power, putting a prize crew on board and bringing the vessel under convoy to a home port. She may also sink an enemy vessel, providing that the passengers and crew are saved. To sink an unarmed vessel, with its passengers and crew aboard, even though belonging to the enemy, is not piracy, but murder. To sink an unarmed vessel belonging to a neutral country while saving passengers and crew is a matter to be settled by damages; to do so with persons aboard is piracy without any possible shadow of justification.

The *Emden* may be taken as an example of commerce raiders' work, for not only was she rightly dubbed "The Terror of the East," but her story is one of the most romantic in the history of the Seven Seas. It is too good a story not to tell, and the following account is pieced together from the story of the gallant Captain Mücke, who led a ragged landing party by steam, sail, sambuk, afoot and camel-back half around the world; and from an officer of the Australian cruiser *Sydney,* which sunk the ever-famous cruiser.

"On August 11, 1914," begins the Odyssey of Captain Mücke, "we separated from the cruiser squad, escorted only by the coaler *Markomannia.* . . . On September 10 we met the *Indus,* bound for

Bombay, all fitted up as a troop transport, but still without troops. That was the first one we sank. The crew we took aboard the *Markomannia*. . . . Then we sank the *Lovat*, a troop transport ship, and took the *Kabinga* along with us. . . .

"After a few days, capturing ships became a habit. Of the twenty-three which we captured, most of them stopped after our first signal. When they didn't, we fired a blank shot. Then they all stopped. Only one, the *Clan Mattesen* (September 21, 1914), waited for a real shot across the bow before giving up its cargo of locomotives and automobiles to the seas. . . . We had mostly quiet weather, so that communication with captured ships was easy. They were mostly dynamited or else shot close to the water line. . . . Mostly, the ships keeled over on their sides till the water flowed down the smokestacks, a last puff of smoke came out and then they were gone. . . .

Prolific Commerce Raiding.

"A few days later, by Calcutta, we made one of our richest hauls, the *Diplomat*, chock full of tea—we sank $2,500,000 worth. On the same day the *Trabbotch*, too, which steered literally into our arms.

"Now we wanted to get out of the Bay of Bengal, because we had learned that the *Emden* was being keenly searched for. Near Rangoon, we encountered a Norwegian tramp steamer, which, for a cash consideration, took over all the rest of our prisoners of war. . . . Later on another neutral ship rejected a similar request, and betrayed us to the Japanese into the bargain.

"On September 23, we reached Madras and steered straight for the harbor. We stopped, 3000 yards before the city. Then we shot up the oil tanks. . . . By daylight, ninety sea miles away, we could still see the smoke from the burning oil tanks. Two days later we gathered in two more steamers, the *King Lund* and the *Tyweric*. . . . Everything went well, the only trouble was that the *Markomannia* didn't have much coal left. . . . The next evening we got a steamer with 500 tons of Cardiff coal, the *Burresk*, brand-new, from England on her maiden voyage, bound for Hong-Kong. Then followed in order the *Riberia, Foyle, Grand Ponrabbel, Benmore, Troiens, Exfort, Gryce-fale, Sankt Eckbert* and *Chilkana*. Most of them were sunk; the coal ships were kept. The *Eckbert* was let go with a load of passengers and the captured crews. . . .

"All this happened before October 20; then we sailed southward, to Deogazia, southwest of Colombo. . . . Now we went on toward Miniko, where we sank two ships more. . . . On the next day we found three steamers to the north, one of them with much-desired Cardiff coal. On October 28 we raised our very practicable fourth smokestack (a dummy funnel devised by the captain himself). As a result we were taken for English or French.

"One night we started for Penang. . . . The harbor lies in a channel difficult of access. We had to try it at daybreak. At high speed, without smoke, with lights out, we steered into the mouth of the channel. A torpedo boat on guard slept well. (This was the French torpedo boat *Mousquet,* evidently fooled by the *Emden's* new dummy fourth funnel, which caused her to resemble the British cruiser *Yarmouth,* which was on patrol duty in those seas.)

"Inside lay a dark silhouette; that must be the warship! But it wasn't the French cruiser we were looking for . . . it was the Russian cruiser *Jemtchung.* There it slept like a rat. No watch to be seen. That made it easy for us. (This was criminal carelessness in war times. Her captain was spending the night ashore, the decks were not cleared for action and no one aboard seemed capable of acting with the lightning quickness that the urgency demanded.)

"Because of the narrowness of the harbor we had to keep close; we fired the first torpedo at 400 yards. Then, to be sure, things livened up a bit on the sleeping warship. At the same time we took the crew quarters under fire, five shells at a time. There was a flash of flame on board, then a kind of burning aureole. After the fourth shell, the flame burned high. The first torpedo had struck the ship too deep because we were too close to it, a second torpedo, which we fired from the other side, did not make the same mistake. After twenty seconds, there was absolutely not a trace of the ship to be seen. . . .

"Shortly afterwards an incoming destroyer was reported. It proved to be the French *Mousquet.* . . . The Frenchman behaved well, accepted battle and fought us, but was polished off by us with three broadsides. The commander of the torpedo boat lost both his legs by the first broadside. . . . He went down with his ship as a brave captain, lashed fast to the mast. We then started for the Cocos Islands."

(So far, the story has been recounted from the German account

in the *Berliner Tageblatt,* translated for the *Current History Magazine of the New York Times.* The next phase is from British Admiralty reports, rewritten by Bennet Copplestone in "The Silent Watchers.")

"At a point in the sea fifty miles east of the Cocos Islands," wrote Copplestone, "on the tropical night of November 8, 1914, two hostile naval forces were approaching, entirely ignorant of the nearness of the other. Coming up from Colombo was a fleet of transports . . . convoyed by the Australian light cruiser *Melbourne.* On the left, and hence nearer to the Cocos Islands (which lie west and a little south of Java), was the Australian light cruiser *Sydney.* At half past six in the morning, the *Emden* appeared off the Cocos Islands and, before the wireless plant was destroyed, the watching operators sent out a warning to all whom it might concern that a foreign warship was in sight. . . . The *Sydney* (which picked up the radio message) was manned only by raw naval recruits in the course of training, but had experienced naval officers on board."

Engagement Between the "Sydney" and the "Emden."

It may be interesting to compare the vessels. The *Sydney* was much more powerful than the *Emden.* She carried eight 6-inch guns, mounted on the one-calibre idea, so that five could fire on either broadside, her lyddite shells weighing 100 pounds. The *Emden* carried ten 4.1-inch guns, with shells weighing 38 pounds. The *Sydney* was new and fast, the *Emden's* bottom was foul, having been in tropical waters without dry-docking for many months. It is not known just when the *Emden* found out the approach of the *Sydney,* but she rushed out of port in the hope of escape, without sparing the time to pick up the landing party sent ashore to destroy the wireless. As soon as he got out of the harbor, however, Captain von Muller of the *Emden* recognized the *Sydney* as a vessel both faster and more heavily gunned than his own. Escape, therefore, was impossible, his only chance was to rush his foe, hope to disable her and thus get away. He steamed at full speed for the *Sydney* and opened fire at 10,500 yards, nearly ten miles.

"To the astonishment both of the captain and the gunnery lieutenant of the *Sydney* . . . at this very long range for his small 4.1-inch guns, von Muller got within a hundred yards at his first salvo. It was wonderful shooting. His next was just over, and with his

third he began to hit." One shell missed the captain by a few inches, glanced on the pedestal of the range-finder without bursting, cut off the leg of the operator and plunged overboard. Had it burst, it would have killed the captain and the gunnery chief, not to speak of material damage.

"The first salvo fired by the *Sydney*, immediately after the *Emden* opened, was much too far; their second was wild and ragged, but with the third some hits were made. . . . Glossop (of the *Sydney*) having the full command given by superior speed, manoeuvred so as to keep out to about 8,000 yards . . . to present the smallest danger space to the enemy. (This was largely owing to the possibility that if the *Sydney* were hit, the *Emden* might escape.) The *Emden's* first attempt to close in had failed, and when the *Sydney's* 100-pound shells began to burst well on board of her, the *Emden's* one chance had disappeared. During the first fifteen minutes the *Sydney* was hit ten times, but afterwards not at all; the *Emden* was hit again and again during the long-drawn-out two hours of the hopeless struggle. After twenty minutes, the *Emden's* forward funnel went and she caught fire aft. Her steering gear was wrecked and she became dependent on the manipulation of her propellers.

"After the lapse of about three-quarters of an hour, the *Emden* had lost two funnels and the foremast: she was badly on fire aft and amidships, so that, at times, nothing more than the top of the mainmast could be seen amid the clouds of steam and smoke. Her guns, now firing occasionally, gave out a short yellow flash by which they could be distinguished from the long dark red flames of the *Sydney's* bursting lyddite. Once she disappeared so completey that the cry went up from the *Sydney* that she had sunk, but she appeared again, blazing, almost helpless. . . . At last von Muller, finding that his ship was badly pierced under water as well as on fire, put about again and headed for the North Keeling Island where he ran aground. The one remaining gun continued to fire until the last. . . ."

The *Sydney* then chased the collier *Buresk* and settled with her, then returned to the wreck of the *Emden,* which was still flying the German flag. For a quarter of an hour, Glossop, of the *Sydney* signalled by International Code and Morse, begging von Muller to surrender. The German commander refused. Under his duty, Glossop was compelled to force submission. With a heavy heart he brought

the *Sydney* to within 4,000 yards and smashed the doomed *Emden* from stem to stern. Not until late in the afternoon was the white flag run up. Several wounded men, including a doctor, managed to scramble ashore, without food and drink, and spent the night amid huge red land-crabs, with which the island was infested. They were rescued next morning by the British.

The story now returns to the landing party, under Captain Mücke, left marooned by the sudden departure of the *Emden*. Some of the sea-fight had been seen from the shore. "I made up my mind," continued Captain Mücke, "to leave the island as soon as possible. In the harbor I had noticed a three-master, the schooner *Ayesha*." The Germans seized her, provisions were taken for eight weeks, water for four. "I sailed at first westward, then northward. . . . We needed eighteen days to reach Padang (in Sumatra), the weather was so rottenly calm. . . ." After leaving Padang on November 28 (with many adventures) the *Ayesha* cruised until she met a German coaster, the *Choising*. On December 16, 1918, the German landing party boarded the *Choising*, and scuttled the *Ayesha*, thus leaving no trace of their whereabouts.

The "Emden's" Crew Return to Germany.

"On the 7th of January, we sneaked through the Strait of Perim. That lay swarming full of Englishmen. We steered along the African coast, close past an English mine-layer. That is my prettiest delight, how the Englishmen will be vexed when they learn that we have passed smoothly by Perim." An armored French cruiser was sighted, but the four boats of the *Choising* set the German landing party ashore "under the very noses of the unsuspecting Frenchmen."

The Arabs of that section were at that time friendly to the Turks, and hence helped the group of German wanderers from the *Emden*. The worn-out men went up country to the highlands to rest and to give the fever patients a chance to recuperate. Two months later, in two small sailing sjambuks, provided by the Turkish government, Captain Mücke sailed from Hodeida (on the Red Sea) northwards. One of the boats ran on a coral reef, but with most of its passengers piled on the other small boat they reached Konfida. There a larger sjambuk was secured and they sailed on to Lith. At that point Captain Mücke engaged an overland caravan and, after several encounters with desert

Bedouins, the party reached Damascus and took rail thence to Haidar-Pasha, the last station on the Asiatic side, where a German admiral awaited them. The hero of this Odyssey then stepped up to the admiral, lowered his sword, and reported, simply:

"Beg to report, most obediently, Herr Admiral, landing corps of the *Emden,* 44 men, 4 officers, 1 surgeon."

Thence to Constantinople and Germany. So ended the Odyssey of the Wanderers of the *Emden,* one of the strangest stories that has ever occurred on sea or land, ranking, in its multiplicity of interest and change, the Wanderings of Ulysses, as told by Homer.

One of the queer happenings of the sea was the fate of the German cruiser *Königsberg* which, in October, 1914, was hiding a little distance up the Rufiji River, in German East Africa. The British sank a collier across the mouth of the river to prevent the German boat from reaching the sea. The *Königsberg* was invisible, by reason of dense jungle. The crew built powerful land defenses. For many months the British could do nothing. At last some aëroplanes arrived and these found out, from overhead, the exact location of the cruiser. Whereupon, British monitors, with heavy guns, directed a heavy dropping fire, the aeroplanes spotting the shells and wirelessing back corrections. On July 4, 1915, the cruiser was set on fire. On July 11, the bombardment was renewed and the screaming shells, flying high above the tropical forest, fell on the doomed craft, and she was smashed to pieces.

Stories of Other German Sea Raiders.

Space is too scant to permit the story of the *Prinz Eitel Friedrich,* which, after roving the seven seas for seven months out from her home port of Tsing-Tao, and sending eight merchant ships to the bottom, one of them being an American vessel, put into Newport News, Virginia, for repairs, and was interned. A still more exciting story is that of the *Dresden,* which took part in the great sea-fights of Coronel and the Falkland Islands, but which was finally destroyed by the British cruiser *Glasgow.* The *Moewe's* record was even more spectacular. She left Germany on December 20, 1915, under Swedish colors, ran down the English Channel, raided the high seas, sank fifteen merchant vessels, captured the *Appam* and sent her to Norfolk, Virginia, and then returned back through the navy-infested North Sea into Wilhelmshaven with many prisoners and $250,000 in gold bars.

The two great South Sea actions, the defeat of the British off Coronel, and the ensuing revenge and destruction of the German South Sea Fleet at the Falkland Islands, cannot be told in detail. A bare record of the facts must suffice. When war broke out, Admiral von Spee was stationed at the German Caroline Islands with the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau,* two powerful battle cruisers. Each carrying eight 8.2-inch guns, their shells were almost three times as heavy as the 100-pound shells of the 6-inch guns mounted on the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth,* leading ships of the British squadron in those seas. Von Spee had also with him the *Dresden* and the *Leipzig.*

The fight between the German and English squadrons was joined on November 1, 1914, and lasted fifty-two minutes. By that time the *Good Hope* had been blown up and the *Monmouth* was on fire. Later that same night, the *Nurnberg,* coming up, poured a broadside into the the crippled *Monmouth* and sent her to the bottom. The *Glasgow,* unable to oppose the guns of the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau,* and having the heels of them, made good her escape.

German Battle Career on the Sea Ended.

This naval disaster did more than annoy the British naval authorities, it enraged them, and they determined on a drastic revenge. They succeeded, in most amazing fashion, in sending the two powerful battle cruisers, *Invincible* and the *Inflexible,* from England to the Falkland Islands without anyone being the wiser. These were 27-knot ships, with eight 12-inch guns apiece, far outranging, outweighing and outrunning von Spee's ships. They reached the Falkland Islands and went in to coal. Then, as luck would have it, the very next day, up came the *Scharnhorst* and the *Gneisenau.* On December 8, 1914, their funnels were sighted on the horizon. As they came nearer, the old British battleship *Canopus,* which had grounded, loosed a couple of pot-shots at a distance of six miles. Then, as though to give battle, out crept the hastily repaired *Glasgow,* the little *Kent* and the unimportant *Carnarvon.* In the words of a German prisoner: "We laughed till our sides ached."

"A few more minutes passed," says Copplestone, "and then, from under the cover of the smoke and the low fringes of the harbor, steamed grandly out the *Invincible* and the *Inflexible,* cleared for action, their huge turrets, fore and aft and upon either beam, bristling

with 12-inch guns, their turbines working at fullest pressure, the flag of Vice-Admiral Sturdee fluttering aloft. There was no more German laughter."

The fight dragged on to great length, for Sturdee knew that he had the guns, he had the speed, he had the greater range. He knew that the Germans could gain no re-enforcements, and that he himself was far from any naval base to which he could repair in the case of a chance shot crippling one of his big ships. Besides, the odds were impossible. Though the *Invincible* was the leading ship and at one time received the concentrated fire of both German ships, she did not suffer a single casualty. "And while she was being peppered almost harmlessly, her huge shells, which now and then burst inboard the doomed German vessels, were setting everything on fire between decks, until the dull red glow could be seen from miles away through the gaping holes in the sides.

"Firing began seriously at 12.55 and continued, with intervals of rest for guns and men, till 4.16, when the *Scharnhorst* sank. . . . Every man in the *Scharnhorst* was killed or drowned. For nearly two hours longer the *Gneisenau* kept up the fight. . . . By half past five, she was blazing furiously fore and aft, and at 6.02 she rolled over and sank. Her guns spoke to the last. She sank with her ensign still flying. . . . Those of the crew who remained afloat were picked up by boats from the cruisers and the *Carnarvon,* only 108 officers and men, all told, were saved."

Meantime, the elderly cruiser *Kent,* the lame duck of the squadron, feeding her fires with ladders, doors, the officers' furniture, tables and chairs from the captain's cabin, and—still more remarkable, with the boats—chased and caught the *Nürnberg* and sank her out of hand. The *Glasgow,* burning to revenge the disaster at Coronel, pursued the *Leipzig,* and sank her also. Of all the German South Sea Squadron, only the light cruiser *Dresden* escaped. She fled without firing a shot, and her end came, at Robinson Crusoe's Island some three months later. The Battle of Falkland Islands ended Germany's battle career upon the open sea.

CHAPTER XXIII.

OUTWITTING THE WILY SUBMARINE.

The Strength and Weakness of Submarine Attack—Commerce Raiders—Sinking of Three British Cruisers by One "Fritz"—Underwater Boats and Neutral Ships—Torpedoing the Red Cross—Trying to Starve England Out—The Three-Fold Quality of the Submarine.

SO far as submarines are concerned, the world war definitely taught three things. It taught that submarines are only moderately dangerous to armed fleets unless they can be developed to such a point that they can make long under-water cruises at a much greater depth than is possible to any type built before 1918. It taught that the submarine cannot be used as a commerce raider justifiably, for the reason that it cannot pick up the passengers and crew, not having any means of conveying them to a home port. It taught that submarines are highly valuable and excessively threatening as mine-layers.

In order to realize the submarine situation in the world war, it is necessary to understand clearly the limitation of a submarine. First of all, a submarine running under water is blind, absolutely and entirely blind. It sees nothing, hears nothing, knows nothing. To continue, a submarine under water stores and can produce only a certain quantity of air, the supply in the very latest types at the close of the war extending to ten hours' breathing for the crew. In the third place, in order that the submarine may be kept as near as possible to the specific gravity of water, that it may rise and sink by a small inclination of the planes, the skin or shell of the submarine must be thin. This thin shell prevents the submarine from sinking to a great depth, not beyond eighteen or twenty fathoms at most, because if it went down deeper, the pressure of the water would squash in its sides like a paper bag.

The submarine is not an under-water boat. It is a surface boat which can go under the water for a time. The difference is highly important. A submarine whose periscope, only, may be showing above the surface, leaves behind it a ripple and wake which can easily be seen from a hydroplane, especially in smooth water. In really rough water

a submarine cannot operate at all. Moreover, owing to the thinness of its skin, it is not necessary to actually hit it with a depth bomb. If the bomb bursts within twenty-seven feet on any side of it, the vacuum in the water caused by the explosion of the bomb pulls its plates out (not drives them in) in the same way that the windows of a house fall outwards when a bomb explodes in the street.

Consider, for a moment, the three possible lines of operation for a submarine. Let it be supposed that an enemy fleet is steaming along slowly on a calm sea, the ideal conditions for submarine attack. It runs as deep down as it dares, until somewhere near the fleet. Then it has to come up to within three or four feet of the surface to put its periscope out of the water to find where to go.

It will be lucky to escape observation then. Nine times out of ten, it will come up outside the outer ring of the fleet, the circle of destroyers. If sighted by them, the four-inch guns will begin to pop. If not, it may be sighted by the hydroplanes, flying overhead, to whom a submarine which has come close to the surface is as plain to see as though it were awash.

Difficulties Attending the Submarine.

Battleships steam an eighth of a mile apart. It is useless merely to fire a torpedo in the general direction. The submarine must dive, therefore, and come up again, close to some battleship. This time it cannot escape detection. In the space of a few seconds the commander of the submarine must sight the victim, get the exact direction, figure out the speed at which she is traveling, make his calculations and fire the torpedo, for unless he does so in a few seconds, he will be assuredly sunk or have his periscope shot away, which is just as bad, for it means a blind groping until death comes, or until he is forced to come to the surface and be made prisoner.

Suppose, however, that the torpedo has been fired. It is extremely difficult to hit with a first shot. Suppose, also, that the submarine escapes being hit the first time it appears above the surface, what then? It is doomed, just the same. The hydroplanes overhead will keep an eye on the deadly man-made fish and will wireless to the destroyers its exact position. Running right over its path the destroyers will drop depth bombs every twenty-five feet. A patch of oil and sometimes a floating but shattered body tell the rest of the story.

Consider, next, the question of the submarine (of any type prior

to the end of the war) as a commerce raider. Since space is at a premium in a submarine, it is impossible for it to take off the passengers and crew of any vessel it captures. Equally it is impossible for it to carry enough men to put on board vessels so seized, as prize crews. Its only possible mode of capture is to sink the commerce vessel with all hands, allowing them to take to the boats, or not. This, however, is outside the pale of international law. It is not raiding; it is piracy.

Germany's submarine policy aroused the vengeful detestation of the whole world because of its brutal disregard for human life. The fault did not lie with the commanders of the submarines, but with the conditions which of necessity belong to submarine usage. Submarine commerce raiding, of itself, cannot be made justifiable. It must be admitted, however, that many submarine commanders seemed to take a delight in acts which aggravated their offences, such as the sinking of neutral ships and even of Red Cross vessels with wounded men aboard.

Amount of Shipping Sunk by German U-boats.

Although the submarine was widely used by Germans during 1915 and 1916, it was not until February 1, 1917, that Germany declared her intention of unrestricted U-boat warfare in the barred zones. The German plan was two-fold, to blockade England so that she would be starved out, and to sink a sufficient number of naval vessels to reduce Great Britain's Navy until it was no larger than that of Germany. Such important factors as the sinking of the *Lusitania* and the *Provence* did not come under this head, and there is no need to burden the reader with the list of armed and unarmed ships sunk by submarines.

It will serve the purpose best to give the figures for the entire war. The German U-boats sank during the four years of the war a total of 15,053,786 gross tons of shipping, of which over 9,000,000 was British. The loss of life in the British merchant marine was 15,000, the loss among other nations being proportionate. During the war period there was a total ship construction among the Allies of 10,849,527 gross tons, while 2,392,675 was captured. The net loss during the war, therefore, among Allied and neutral nations was under 2,000,000 tonnage, say five hundred ships averaging ocean liners and coasting craft together.

According to figures issued by the British Admiralty from German sources, secured after the war, it was learned that 360 U-boats

had been built, altogether, by Germany. Of these there were only 129 remaining to be turned over to the Allies (including those interned as well as delivered), so that 231 U-boats had either been sunk or taken prisoner. Nearly all had been sunk. Full figures of the building of submarines among the Allied nations have not been issued, but semi-official reports show that, at the close of the war, the Allies had not less than 500 submarines against the 129 remaining to the Germans.

The utter failure of the submarines to sink any American transports was due mainly to the system of convoy. Twenty vessels, armed, with naval escort, including destroyers and seaplanes had little to fear from a submarine. One vessel of the convoy, might, by an off chance, be torpedoed, but the submarine, for reasons given above, could never escape. Chances such as that of the *U-19,* which sank the three British cruisers, *Aboukir, Cressy* and *Hogue,* one after the other, right at the beginning of the war, could never happen again.

Regarded navally, the submarine was a complete failure. It did not and could not turn the tide of a naval battle, it failed to serve its purpose as a commerce-destroyer after the convoy system had been established, it was impotent as a blockader of ports or harbors. Its principal value was found as a mine-layer, and therein it created, even to the end of the war, a serious difficulty. "The Fleet of the One-Eyed Death" which, Admiral von Tirpitz proclaimed, "was to bring England to her knees," grew steadily more and more inept throughout the war, although the under-sea vessels themselves were being built upon more and more powerful lines.

Just as a last flare, the world was astonished, two days before the close of the war, when the British battleship *Britannia* was torpedoed and sunk by a submarine near Gibraltar. It was evident that the fins of the submarine had been clipped, but that the menace was not over. Naval opinion, when the war ended, was in full agreement on the point that the submarine had not justified its existence in the world war, but that even a little more improvement would make it a threat to every ship afloat. The next naval war—should there be another—will tell the tale.

CHAPTER XXIV.

DEATH-DEALING SQUADRONS OF THE SKY.

Development of Types of Air-Craft—Dirigibles and Their Uses—Summary of Military Failure of Zeppelin Raids—The Differences in Aeroplanes Required for Bombing, Spotting, Reconnoissance and Combat—Aerial Strategy—Aces—Famous Feats of Daring.

AIR-CRAFT have created a new warfare. Nothing since the invention of gunpowder so revolutionized every phase of battle tactics. Combats in the air had practically no decisive effect in the world war, saving and only as these were necessary for the protection of aeroplanes which were on their proper business. The chief business of air-craft is two-fold: firstly, scouting; secondly, as the eyes of the heavy artillery.

It was air-craft, and air-craft only, which made possible the use of the heavy artillery used in the world war. When a siege howitzer shoots over a hill, dropping its shells near a fort on the other side of it, how can the gunners tell if their shots are falling short, going too far, or missing to the right or left? Only by information from an observational captive balloon (such as the sausage or the kite), from a dirigible balloon, or from an aeroplane. When a long-range gun (and the Germans produced two, at least, with a range of sixty-five miles), even of moderate force, bombards a position ten miles away, the accuracy of its fire can only be judged by an aerial observer, who signals or wirelesses back to the battery the necessary changes in the direction of the shots.

There is one famous example of this. In the Russo-Japanese War, over a quarter of a million men lost their lives in the battle for 403-Metre Hill. Why? Merely because it commanded a view of the harbor in which the Russian fleet was lying. If the Japanese could have gained even a single observation post on this hill, they could have bombarded the fleets with their heavy batteries, and by the correction of the direction which the observer could give, it would take but a few minutes to get the exact range. A modern aeroplane, even of an early type, could have avoided all this slaughter.

Equal in value to the usefulness of air-craft as the eyes of the guns was their value as scouts. It was the business of the air squadrons to give information as to the enemy's movements, thus minimizing the dangers of surprise. If the enemy was gathering munitions or troops or stores at any particular point, it was evidence that a drive was being prepared there. The defending army could then strengthen its line at that point. If the enemy was thinning his line, by the gradual shifting of troops, the keen air scout could give information to the High Command which might lead to a smashing counter-offensive at that thinned point and a consequent victory.

There were two famous cases at the beginning of the world war where victories were won by the Allies which would not have been possible had the enemy possessed good air scouts. The first of these was at the Battle of the Marne, when Foch deliberately withdrew an entire division of men from the center of the battle and told them to rest in a field during the whole of that vital afternoon. Then, at five o'clock, he launched them against the thinned line of the Prussian Guard. Good air-scouting by the enemy would have warned the German general that a fresh division of troops was ready to attack his weakest point. The other case was the capture of Lemberg, at the beginning of the Russian campaign, when General Brusiloff came up with an army of 250,000 men from a direction where the Austrians did not anticipate a single soldier. One reconnoissance flight by an Austrian aviator would have given this information.

No Man's Land of the Air.

With these two main branches of aerial work in mind, it may be well to explain what is meant by "mastery of the air," a phrase which, of necessity, occurs constantly in all stories of the campaigns and battles of the world war. It is understood that between two opposing armies there is a patch of contested ground, which, as yet, has been seized by neither. This was called No Man's Land in the world war, after the trench warfare period had begun.

It does not follow, however, that the line of trenches on the earth, which marks the boundaries of the opposing armies, is the same as the aerial border line. It is clear, for example, that if the Allies had stronger aerial squadrons than those of the Central Powers, they could keep the German aviators from ever flying over the Allied lines, while,

at the same time, they could do so with a greater or lesser penetration over the German lines. If the German air squadrons were the stronger, the converse would be true. There was thus a No Man's Land of the air which did not run horizontally parallel to the No Man's Land of the ground. Mastery of the air consisted in having the No Man's Land of the air so far behind the enemy lines that defending aviators could see all that the foe was doing, while enemy aviators could see nothing in the opposing lines.

An excellent example of mastery of the air occurred in the minor but important American success at Vaux, when the American troops drove the Germans before them like rabbits from a beaten glade, the Crown Prince not having any expectation of the attack. That whole section of the line was completely in the control of the air men of the Allies. Contrariwise, the success of the German drives of 1915 and 1916 was due to the fact that the German flyers had air mastery of a larger portion of the front than did the overhead scouts of the Allies.

The Zeppelin a Failure as a War Machine.

For this reason it gives a false impression to speak of aeroplanes as winning this battle or that. They did nothing of the sort. They were an arm of the service, an essential arm, but a consideration of their services has no place in Military History, except in so far as they fought in each particular battle. To outline the respective values of infantry, cavalry, artillery, signal, engineer and aerial services in every engagement would be unending. The air work commends itself especially to writing of flights as incidents, because of the opportunity for individuality in the aviator, but in no single case can it be said that air raids in themselves have turned the tide of battle or altered the progress of the war.

The Zeppelin was even a greater failure as a war machine than the submarine. It, also, had been heralded by Germany as a means of subduing the French and British. Air raids on London were numerous, and attempts on Paris were not less so. The total casualties from all exclusively Zeppelin and Schutte-Lanz dirigible raids, so far as is known, was approximately 9,000 civilians, during the four years of the war. This is a great deal higher than any figures which were given out, pending the conflict, and undoubtedly includes minor casualties. Deaths are given as 831.

The Intelligence Department of the French Army announced that it had learned that 100 Zeppelins had been built by March, 1918. There seems reason to estimate that four more were constructed between that time and the end of the war, making 104 in all. Every Zeppelin built before the beginning of the war is known to have been destroyed. Of these 104 the destruction of 31 is definitely known, 9 were presumably lost but actual evidence was not forthcoming, 17 were so seriously injured as to be dismantled, 4 were employed as school ships. This accounts for 61 ships out of the 104, not including any which may have been lost by accident (such as entering a hangar) within the German lines. Without going into the cost of building Zeppelins (which is huge, owing to the amount of aluminum used) and the cost of training Zeppelin crews, it is clear that, during the war, more than one-half were put out of business. Moreover, when it is realized that Zeppelins were little used, that they remained in their hangars for weeks, sometimes months, at a time, and that their raids had no military value, the failure of the Zeppelin is demonstrated.

There is a curious similarity between the Zeppelin and the submarine. Both developed, during the world war, to a high degree of efficiency, yet not in the military sense. Both added immensely to man's conquest of the air and man's conquest of the sea. Both are ripe with promise of great commercial scope and gain. And since, in this world, it often follows that out of evil some Guiding Hand may produce good, it may well be that the future will see over a world at peace, great craft of air and under-sea speeding on missions to bless instead of curse humanity.

CHAPTER XXV.

MODERN WEAPONS OF LAND WARFARE.

The Rifle and the Machine Gun—Light Artillery—The French "75"—Heavy Artillery—The "Big Bertha" and Siege Howitzer—Aerial Guns—Hand Grenade and Bolo—Gas and Explosives.

NO matter how much the world may feel like congratulating itself upon the fact that victory perched upon the side of right in the great war, the bitter struggle of four years clearly demonstrated the age-old principle that force will conquer. Three factors which are absolutely necessary to the making of a victorious army are man-power, resources and equipment. And these in the finality the Allies possessed.

It required four years of concentrated effort to build up a military machine of such superior force and equipment as to bring defeat to the German hordes, but that is what the Allies did, and not the least of their success was due to the development of their arms and weapons of offense and defense.

The whole history of the struggle offers no more interesting study than that of the arms, armaments and devices used by the opposing forces in their efforts to annihilate one another.

When Germany plunged into Belgium she possessed what was conceded to be the very best arms and equipment that science and mechanics could supply. Her big guns reduced the forts of Liege and Namur and similar Belgian and French strongholds with a dispatch that startled the civilized world, and in the course of the long war she brought forth improvements which taxed the ingenuity of her opponents to resist.

A detailed technical description of all the arms used during the four years of warfare would involve a story of science and mechanics covering practically all that is known of guns, gun-resisting materials and explosives and their effects, for practically everything that gave promise of offering some advantage to the opposing forces was given a thorough test by the military authorities.

For this very reason much appeared regarding the wonderful

weapons and devices of war which was not justified by their actual use nor by the facts.

In considering the value of arms it should be remembered that the mobile fighting forces of the army consist of three main arms: the infantry, field artillery and cavalry, and that the infantryman with his rifle and bayonet forms the backbone of the fighting force.

The weapon of the infantryman is what is commonly called the automatic "repeating rifle." There are many types of these guns, and while one may possess qualities of distinct advantage over another, the rifles used by the armies in the world-wide struggle all involved the same general convenience of construction—a mechanism which made it possible for the soldier to shoot in rapid succession from ten to twenty shots without reloading.

Different Types of Rifles.

At the outbreak of the war Germany used what was known as the "98" gun, which was in reality a Mauser rifle of the model of 1898, with a capacity of twenty to thirty shots a minute. It had a calibre of 7.9 millimeters (.30 calibre), which was regarded as the smallest calibre that could be used with effect against the enemy.

The American Army—the Expeditionary Force—used the standard United States rifle, which is actually the Enfield rifle, officially adopted by the Government, and which is of .30 calibre. The weapon is the magazine type and is loaded with a clip on which are arranged cartridges automatically fed into the firing chamber one after another. The gun has a high initial velocity and uses a pointed bullet, which gives what is known as a flat trajectory. This simply means that the bullet travels in a straight line within a prescribed range. The advantage of this is easily apparent to the layman when it is stated that the ideal rifle would be the one the path of whose bullet would at no range be higher than a man's head.

The Austro-Hungarian troops were supplied with Krag-Jorgensen and Mauser rifles of older model than the German weapons, and which were inferior as to muzzle velocity and therefore less effective, while the Turkish Army was organized with three grades of infantry firearms. The first line was armed with the Mauser repeating rifle of the standard .30 calibre, while the second line carried a larger or .38 calibre Mauser and the third line had a Martini-Henry rifle of .45

calibre. The cavalry, too, carried a Mauser .30 calibre repeating carbine, or short gun.

The Bulgarians used an 8 millimeter repeating rifle, model of 1888, together with a Mannlichter rifle of the model of '95, while the Russians carried the model '91 repeating rifle of 7.6 millimeter, which, as the date indicates, was not as effective as the later models.

England's infantry in the main was armed with the Lee-Enfield rifle, of .30 calibre, while the French used a Lebel of nearly .32 calibre, of the model of 1893. The Belgian infantry was armed with Mausers of 7.6 millimeters, while Italy used the Mannlichter-Caraco rifle, model 1891. Serbia used the Mauser.

Development of the Machine Gun.

By this it will be seen that the "repeating rifle" was the weapon of all infantrymen and the principle involved in the construction of all was in the main the same. The gas generated by the discharge of one shell forced the next into place ready to be expelled, hence the term automatic, no operation being required on the part of the gunner to throw the shall into place or to dislodge the exploded one.

Before the end of the war, however, and in building up the ultimately victorious military machine, the Allies had largely standardized their small arms and ammunition, and the Enfield rifle of one or several models constituted the main weapon of the infantry. At a range of 1000 yards a bullet from one of these rifles will penetrate a pine plank seventy inches thick.

It is a matter of extreme interest in the development of small arms to note that the first of such weapons used by the fighting forces of the world was the "gonne" or hand cannon, which was a tube mounted on a holder or stick, and fired by touching a match to a hole in the powder chamber. This was the forerunner of the wheel-lock and flint-lock guns, and one of the first of the latter was made by the Germans in the sixteenth century.

The machine gun, which is the secondary weapon of the infantry, is a development of modern war, each regiment having a machine gun company with twelve guns. These weapons are vital necessities in the modern army and all of the forces in the war were provided with them. As in the case of the infantry arm, the machine guns are constructed upon the same principle, but vary as to the types in use.

The machine gun of the United States Army and the Expeditionary Forces used in the field were the Browning and the Colt-Browning, with the Lewis gun prescribed for aviation service. The machine gun is supposed to deliver against the attacks of oncoming forces a rain of bullets equivalent to the fire of an entire infantry section.

The machine guns may be divided into two classes: those having a rotary steel drum or cylinder in which a round of loaded shells is held, and those through which a strip or belt containing cartridges is fed. The guns are mounted on tripods and will shoot from 200 to 500 shots per minute. The guns in warfare open sudden blasts of fire upon the enemy from concealed positions. The fire is of such intensity that well-launched attacks break down under them.

It was against the nests of these guns that the American soldiers made such heroic advances at Chateau Thierry and in Belleau Wood. In the open the guns are particularly vulnerable and once located by opposing artillery must shift their positions or be blown to atoms. The guns shoot a regulation .30 calibre bullet. The weapons weigh from thirty to fifty pounds, complete with tripod.

Importance of the Artillery.

The force required to properly utilize the machine gun in warfare may be determined from the fact that a machine gun company with its 12 guns consists of 6 officers and 172 men, 12 of whom comprise the train required to supply the organization and furnish the ammunition. Nearly all of the countries at war utilized the Lewis machine gun in some branch of the service, but there were others, like the Vickers, utilized by the French Army. The Hotchkiss was also used by some of the aviation corps. The Vickers differed from some of the others in that it is water-cooled, it being necessary to have a cooling device on all types because of the intense heat generated by the rapid fire. Even with the cooling jacket it is necessary to give the machines "rest" or time to cool after from 300 to 500 rounds have been fired.

The artillery comes as an auxiliary of the infantry. It prepares the way for the infantry attacks, destroys the enemy's defenses—fortifications and entrenchments—and protects the advancing troops with barrages or shell "curtains" that are timed to precede the advancing line. The mobile artillery consists of "mountain artillery," light field artillery, heavy field artillery and siege artillery.

The experience of four years proved among other things that the most valuable asset of an army is sufficient and effective field artillery, and in this equipment the French forces proved their superiority over the Germans. The fame of the French "75" was heralded abroad early in the war and to the very end it proved a stumbling block to the ambitions of the Germans. The French "75" is a three-inch field gun, and it is a fact of historic interest that the proof of value of such a comparatively small bore, rapid-fire field gun was first established by the Boers against the British in the South African War.

The Boers used what were termed pompoms against the heavier artillery of the British with deadly effect. They were the forerunner of the French "75," which is capable of delivering from twelve to sixteen shots per minute. Because of this rapid fire, in the development of her army just prior to the world war, France reduced the number of guns per battery from six to four, making up for the loss of pieces by the rapidity of fire and adding ammunition wagons to replace the guns.

The Duty of the Artillery.

The value of the artillery of this type in blazing the way for the advancement of the infantry may be judged from reports on the German advances made early in 1917—in connection with what is known as the March offensive—when reports taken from German officers captured by the Allies showed that they had a gun for every fifteen men on the front.

A military explanation of the advance shows the use made of the various types of arms in support of the infantry. An official report says: "The first wave to cross No Man's Land consisted of about 250 men with light machine guns almost shoulder to shoulder. A hundred yards behind came another line of 250 men, then more machine guns. Next after an interval of two or three hundred yards, came light trench mortars and the battalion staff. Again a space of 200 yards, and then from prepared exits from the trenches the field artillery drove out into open column, forming lines of batteries as soon as possible."

In general the artillery bombards the enemy's first, second and third lines, all gun positions, roads, villages, railway junctions, etc., follows this up with a rain of shrapnel and gas shells and then puts down a rolling barrage from the field guns, which starts when the infantry goes over the top.

The three-inch gun—the French "75"—uses a projectile weighing approximately 15 pounds and having a muzzle velocity of 1,700 feet per second. These weapons became the artillery backbone of the Allied forces. A battery of four of such machines costs about $110,000 and it costs about $20 to fire one of the guns once. When the United States Government began making these weapons to supply its Oversea forces it was necessary to give some of the guns the "destruction" test to determine how long they would last. Two guns were fired at a cost of $20 a shot until they were worn out. The test cost nearly half a million dollars, for it was demonstrated that a gun would discharge about 2,500 shots before it had to be rebuilt.

After the three-inch gun comes the 4.7 field gun, which fires a projectile weighing 60 pounds; then the six-inch howitzer, which uses a 120-pound projectile, and lastly a nine-inch howitzer, which discharges a shell one-half larger.

The Use of Caterpillar Wheels.

The main difference between the howitzer and the field gun is that the howitzer has a shorter barrel in proportion to its length and can be aimed at a high angle to throw explosive shells into protected positions, intrenchments, etc.

The developments which made possible the use of guns above nine-inch in the field during the war related more to the methods of mounting and transportation than to the improvement of the guns themselves.

The three factors which made the use of such guns possible were the "self-laying track" on which they were moved, the tractor, to supplant horses, and the mount on which the guns were operated. Because of their weight it was manifestly impossible to draw big guns over soft fields and rough roads on ordinary or even specially designed extra heavy wheels. Germany and Austria must be given credit for first solving the problem.

The advanced step was the use of caterpillar wheels. The veriest novice now knows that caterpillar wheels consist of ordinary wheels which run in a continuous shoe or belt with a broad surface. Briefly, an endless chain runs around the fore and aft wheels on either side of a four-wheeled vehicle. The contact surface of this chain or belt may be from a foot to two feet in width and it extends on the earth's surface from the greatest diameter of the front to the rear wheel, or the

distance between the front and rear axles. It provides a long, wide bearing surface which passes easily over soft or rough surfaces. As some of the 30 centimeter and 42 centimeter guns which the Germans first used weighed from twenty to forty tons, the caterpillar wheels were necessary to their transportation on other than regularly laid railroad tracks. Because of their weight also it required from thirty to forty horses to draw one of the huge guns.

This problem was partly solved, however, by constructing the guns so that they could be demounted and moved in sections. An automobile tractor carried the artillery crew and tools and furnished the motive power, while a second car carried the platform and turntable on which the gun was mounted. The gun proper was carried on a separate carriage or caterpillar wheeled truck.

Up until the "great war" such guns as the 42 centimeter weapon of the Germans had only been used on naval vessels and at fortified points where they could be set up on firmly built concrete bases. The development of the recoil principle, however, made it possible to use the powerful guns wherever they could be moved, and Italy, France, England and America at various stages of the war brought into use immense guns.

Necessity of the Gun Recoil.

The recoil principle is that in which the force exerted against the breech of the gun by the discharge of a shell is taken up in the gun-carriage or mount, instead of being against the ground or base on which the entire gun rests or is anchored.

It has been applied to the construction of all large guns and almost everybody now understands it when the big gun, after being discharged, slides back under the force of the explosion and then slowly moves forward again into firing position. The perfection of a mechanical arrangement to take up this recoil made it unnecessary to have the big guns solidly attached or anchored and also made possible their mounting on turntables, so that they can be moved in any direction and the muzzles elevated at the required angle.

The French went the Germans one better in the transportation of heavy guns and used armor-protected trains on which were mounted heavy howitzers. The United States also developed several guns of this character which were taken to France, and a number were in process of manufacture when the war ended.

Probably the most interesting of these guns was the "Big Bertha" which was set up by the Germans to bombard Paris from a distance of seventy-five miles. The fact that a gun could be made which would shoot such a distance was at first regarded as marvelous, but military authorities quickly demonstrated that the only thing that was really extraordinary about it was the fact that Germany had done it.

What the German military authorities did in their efforts to frighten Paris was to set up in St. Gobain Forest a gun of the long-range naval type, putting in a concrete base on which to mount it. The greatest previous range of a gun was about twenty-five miles, and their mathematical experts figuring out the problems of air resistance, velocity, elevation, and using explosives of a high propulsive power and a projectile shaped to develop the minimum resistance in flight, had fixed an elevation which carried the shell upon discharge into the higher altitudes. Since the density of the air diminishes in high altitude, the resistance likewise decreases. What this means may be drawn from the statement that military authorities estimate that at height of about twenty miles each cubic foot of space contains only about 15 grains of air as compared with 534 at the ground.

The Principle of Ballistic Efficiency.

With this idea of decreased density or resistance in mind, it must be understood that the "ballistic efficiency" of the projectile was taken into consideration. The missile that possesses the power to cut its own path through the air has the greatest ballistic efficiency. A tennis ball would travel as far as a leaden missile of the same size under a similar propelling force if it were not for the fact that it has not the power to force its way through the atmosphere, hence it lacks what science calls ballistic efficiency.

If, then, a projectile is propelled into the higher altitudes, its ballistic efficiency increases as the resistance of the rarified atmosphere decreases and it travels twice the distance in the upper arc, practically without resistance, and descends at a greater distance from the place of its original projection. In other words, it makes a longer arc in its flight by passing through the higher altitudes than if the gun were pitched at an angle to make the flight of the shell through the dense atmosphere closer to the earth's surface. Incidentally it has been estimated that the time required for the flight of a shell over a distance

of seventy-five miles is about 175 seconds. The shells used in the bombardment of Paris were of an eight-inch type and weighed in excess of 300 pounds.

Next to the astonishment created by the bombardment of Paris, the "tanks" first used by the British on the Somme were the subject of the greatest interest and proved to be a vital factor in the offensive warfare of the Allies. The tanks were simply tractor engines of the "caterpillar" wheel type, armored and mounted with guns. England, Germany and France all developed types of these monsters, as did America, the United States, however, developing one-man tanks and creating tank companies to ride through the most closely defended sections and intrenchments. The Government was training entire regiments of "tankers" when the war ended.

The turreted or armored motor car was another device which added to the offensive power of the Allies. Every country had types, but the Allies had a greater force of them than Germany and her allies, Italy being unusually well equipped. Most of the armored cars were mounted with rapid-fire guns, although some types had three-inch field guns.

Tracer Bullets for Day or Night.

In keeping with the developments made in the use of guns were those made in the devising of shells and secondary equipment. Wire-cutters, which were like small two-wheeled chariots, in which scouts crept toward the enemy lines and cut the wire entanglements. Shells that burst in the air and sent forth phosphorescent light to illuminate the enemy's line. Tracer bullets, which left a trail of light in the night or smoke in the day. These, however, were confined in their use largely to aviators. The need for such missiles was shown when the airplanes became offensive weapons and carried rapid-fire guns. There was no way to tell where a missile from a gun went. No dust or earth showed where the bullet struck and no distant range finder directed the fire of the aviator. To give him some sense of direction in firing his machine gun, a tracer bullet was devised by the Ordnance Department of the United States. In daytime this bullet was followed by a long trail of blue smoke; at night by a phosphorescent light. One shell containing such a bullet was set at regular intervals in the clip holding the regular shells for the machine gun. When one of these tracers went forth the airman could tell the direction of his fire.

With the increased use of the airplanes and their bombing came the air-craft guns, which are rapid-fire guns of varying calibre, so mounted that they can be elevated for shooting into the air. Various carriages have been built for this purpose, but the ordinary quick-fire rifle and the machine gun have also been used with good effect.

No story of modern armament would be complete without reference to the hand-grenade which came into use in consequence of the progress made in trench warfare. The hand-grenade was used as far back as the sixteenth century by the French and during the recent war several types were evolved. There were in the main, however, two principal types. One type exploded with a time fuse, and the other was discharged on striking the earth or other object at which it was thrown. One type had a time fuse which caused explosion of the grenade five seconds after the ignition of the fuse. The free end of the fuse had attached to it a "match-tip" which was ignited by striking it with a ring worn by the bomb thrower.

Germany's Devilish Gas Devices.

One of the impact type had a lever attachment which was released when the bomb was thrown. When the lever is freed it releases a firing pin which strikes a percussion cap at impact, causing the grenade to explode. Another type with a time fuse has a friction pin which is jerked out when the bomb leaves the thrower's hand. The pulling out of the pin ignites the fuse and explosion follows in five or six seconds.

There is material for much study in mechanics and chemistry for those interested in the devices of the war. The greatest protest aroused by Germany was by her use of the poisonous gases in waging warfare against the Allies.

The gas was first used in the spring of 1915, notably at Ypres. The earliest attacks were directed against the French lines, and results were secured by releasing chlorine fumes from cylinders into which the gases had been compressed. The fumes were carried by a favorable wind across the positions held by the French and thousands were suffocated or poisoned to such an extent that they were rendered useless as combatants for long periods. After gas masks were developed to protect the French and English soldiers from the chlorine fumes, the German chemists developed the use of phosgene instead of chlorine, and the masks devised to absorb the chlorine fumes were not effective.

Finally, because the gas clouds freed from compressed tanks could

only be effective when the wind was in a favorable direction, the German military directors adopted gas shells containing substances which were vaporized by the explosion of the shell and scattered in minute drops over a large area. Tear bombs, sneezing-gas shells and shells containing mustard gas, with which American troops were bombarded, were among their devilish devices. The mustard gas was extremely virulent and set up an intense irritation wherever it came in contact with the mucous membrane. The eyes, nose and throat of any unprotected person were literally made raw and pulmonary troubles were developed which frequently caused death. Blindness was frequent.

Naturally the constant use of such gases must be met and the gas mask came into existence. A dozen forms were made, but at the end of the war the most effective device had been created in America and was being used by most of the Allied troops. This mask consists of a head covering having in it mica, glass or composition goggles, a nose clip to close the nostrils against the entrance of gas, an aluminum mouthpiece connected with a tube which is attached to a chemical box suspended from the neck. The chemical box contains a carbon or charcoal and other chemicals which neutralize the poisonous gases and the air breathed by the wearer is filtered through the box.

The explosives used in the war were of as many types and grades as there were guns. In the main, smokeless powder has supplanted the slow-burning black powder of the old days. Picric acid, nitroglycerine, guncotton and a dozen other chemical compounds were used. One of the most powerful explosives used was T. N. T., or trinitrotoluol, which may be described briefly as a triple-nitrated guncotton. Lyddite, used in the manufacture of Lyddite explosive shells, has as its basis picric acid, but the largest percentage of explosives are those formed of nitrated cellulose.

The large quantities of nitrates required to make the necessary explosives formed a severe stumbling block to the Allies for a time, and there is a story of industrial romance in how American institutions and chemists made the necessary nitrates out of kelp or seaweed or extracted it from the air. The importance of nitrates, or nitrogen, will be better understood when it is stated that all explosives are nitrogen or nitrous compounds, and their deadly effect is the result of this liberty-loving gas to burst its bonds and scatter in every direction the elements which sought to restrain it.

Book II

WORLD ISSUES OF THE WAR

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CHAPTER XXVI.

ALLIANCES AND ENTANGLEMENTS.

Close of the Franco-Prussian War—Congress of Berlin—League of the Three Emperors—Triple Alliance—Dual Alliance—Fashoda Incident—Boer War Enmities—Moroccan Trouble—Tripoli and the Concert of Europe—Triple Entente.

TO an American, there are certain questions involved in the Great War which are exceedingly difficult to understand. It is simple enough to see that Austria forced the war on Serbia in spite of the fact that Russia was supporting her Slav small brother, for the sufficient reason that Austria was backed up by Berlin. But this statement does not explain the motives of either Austria, Serbia, Russia or Germany. Still less easy is it to understand why an Austrian ultimatum to Serbia should embroil France and England, Italy's relation is even more puzzling, and, so far as Turkey, Bulgaria and the Balkans are concerned, most people are groping in the dark.

The Key Points of the Situation.

Information on these points becomes a matter of vital interest since America has a voice in trying to arrange a satisfactory compromise of the thousand-and-one bitter and black hostilities which have been caused or re-awakened by the war. It is not enough to know that Alsace-Lorraine, Schleswig-Holstein, Bosnia, Macedonia, Dobrudja and the Czecho-Slovaks are the chief problems of the war, it is necessary to know why these are the key points of the situation. There is no study so bewildering and so fascinating as that wherein races and nations are moved like pawns upon the great chessboard of the world.

The United States is no longer isolated and alone, scorning to be interested in European affairs and as scornfully debarred from them. Willy-nilly, she has become a part of them, or, at least, has a part in them, and, since the American government is only the spokesman for Americans, it follows that every citizen, man or woman, in the United States should know what is being done and why. These world issues will be set forth here, as simply and as briefly as possible.

There are five fundamental principles which create separate nationalities. These are Race, Language, Religion, Political History and Geographic Isolation. Sometimes, but rarely, these principles work singly, generally nations possess differing characters because of a mixture of these principles. On the other hand, these same principles may be the causes which disintegrate nations as well as uniting them.

A few examples may serve to make this clear. Sweden and Denmark are alike in Race, Language and Religion, but the Baltic Sea between them—which is Geographic Isolation—has given a slightly different Political History and made them separate nations. Switzerland, on the other hand, is a combination of three types, different in Race and Language, but the Geographic Isolation of their Alpine home has given them a Political History which has fused them into one.

Conditions Leading Up to the War.

Again, the strength of Germany is a unity of Race and Language, while the weakness of Austria is that she is a mere collection of peoples with different temperaments, speaking different tongues. It is because certain provinces held by Austria are Italian in speech and temperament that Italy claims them, it is because Bulgaria and Roumania are respectively Tartar and Latin Islands in a Slavic sea that fighting never ceases in the blood-soaked Balkans.

In order to avoid confusion, it is well to fix a certain definite point from which to survey the conditions which led up to and caused the war, not only because they were the causes of the war but because they explain why each and every nation entered the war and what each nation hopes to gain thereby. There is no altruism in diplomacy, all wars are fought either to gain something or to defend something. England fought the Boer War as a war of aggression, France fought the Franco-Prussian War as a war of defence.

The Great War is a sequel to two preceding wars, one, the Franco-Prussian War; the other, the Second Balkan War. It is absolutely impossible for a peace treaty to satisfy everybody, therefore all wars are but preludes to other wars. Peace is not a thing in itself, it is merely an absence or an abstention from war.

The Franco-Prussian War was deliberately brought about by Bismarck, not because of any personal enmity to France, but because the consolidation of German national unity was his goal, because the wars

with Denmark in 1864, and Austria in 1866, had only partly achieved this end, and because he believed that a war with France would at once bring into the North German Confederation, headed by Prussia, those South German States which had declined to join it in 1866. The master diplomatist of the century was right, and the victory over France in 1871 was the beginning of the German Empire.

All wars end with treaties, defining the changed political and economic relations that have been brought about by the war. The Franco-Prussian War was closed by the Treaty of Frankfort and Bismarck demanded a war indemnity of six billion francs ($1,200,000,000) the cession of part of Lorraine, all of Alsace and the fortress city of Belfort, near the Franco-Swiss border. The treaty, signed May 10, 1871, compelled France to pay five billion francs ($1,000,000,000), ordered the occupation of French territory by a German Army until the debt was paid, deprived France of 5,000 square miles of territory with 1,500,000 inhabitants. Speaking of this in 1918, Lloyd George, Prime Minister of England, declared "this sore has poisoned the peace of Europe for half a century," and three days later President Woodrow Wilson affirmed that "the wrong done to France by Prussia in the matter of Alsace-Lorraine has unsettled the peace of the world for nearly fifty years."

Kicking the Turk Out of Europe.

France paid the indemnity with an honorable dispatch which annoyed Germany terribly, for Prussia had hoped to cripple her enemy for many decades to come. But France never forgot the unwarranted attack of Germany and the irrational seizure of Alsace-Lorraine, never forgot and never forgave.

The Balkan Wars and all the attendant complications may be regarded as parts of a fifty-year-long process of kicking the Turk out of Europe. In 1871, to use the same date for a starting-point, Turkey-in-Europe was a vast state. It embraced the Black Sea coast as far north as the mouth of the Danube, included the Greek province of Thessaly and had a sea-line on the Adriatic confronting and menacing Italy. Bulgaria was a Turkish holding and much of Servia was in Ottoman hands. Bosnia-Herzegovina was also subject to Turkey.

In 1875, the peasants of Herzegovina revolted on a tax question, and their Slavic brethren in Serbia, Montenegro and Austrian Dalmatia

joined them. Owing to the holding of large quantities of Turkish bonds, the powers tried to make peace. England refused to join the powers. The next year Turkey sent a horde of Bashi-Bazouks, irregular military brigands, to murder the Slavic Christians, and 12,000 men, women and children were massacred in cold blood. England became indignant and moved against Turkey, while Russia, as the "Big Brother" of the Slavs, declared war on Turkey. Seizing this opportunity Bulgaria declared her independence and it was a Bulgarian Army which first stopped the victorious Turkish general Osman Pasha. Russia and Roumania hemmed in the Turkish Armies and Turkey was severely vanquished in 1878. A treaty was signed at San Stefano which, however, was modified three months later by the famous Congress of Berlin.

Result of the Congress of Berlin.

In later chapters of this book, details will be given as to these treaties, but for a broad general view it must suffice to state that the great Congress of Berlin did the following things: (a) enlarged the territories of Serbia and Montenegro, (b) gave the administration of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria, while allowing them to remain nominally a part of Turkey, (c) extended northwards the frontier of Greece, though denying to the Hellenes the Hellenic island of Crete, (d) extended to the southward the Russian frontier in Asia Minor, at the same time compelling the Sultan of Turkey to promise reforms in Armenia, (e) cut the new Bulgaria of the Treaty of San Stefano in half, returning Macedonia to the Turks and making northern Bulgaria an autonomous state, (f) created a new autonomous or self-governing state of eastern Rumelia, (g) took Bessarabia from Roumania and gave it to Russia, in return taking Dobrudja from Turkey and making it a coast-line for Roumania, and (h) gave the island of Cyprus to England.

It was a vicious arrangement, pregnant with future war. It begot the Bosnian question between Austria and Servia, which nearly brought about the world war in 1908 and which was the direct cause of the outbreak of the Great War of 1914. It angered Bulgaria and made her hungry for the sea. It left the Cretan quarrel unsettled and a sore spot between Greece and Turkey. It made Macedonia a subterranean mine to blow up the peace of Europe. It bred enmity between Germany and

Russia which found echo in the Great War. Since Bismarck was the directing genius of the Congress, and succeeded in giving back to Turkey much of the territory which had been rightfully taken from her by the Treaty of San Stefano three months before, it made Turkey a friend to Germany. In the results of the Congress of Berlin may be seen the reasons why, at the outbreak of the Great War in 1914, Russia and Germany were foes and Turkey and Germany were friends.

The world war nearly broke out on October 7, 1908, when Austria, without rhyme or reason, audaciously announced the annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina, thus tearing up the treaty of the Congress of Berlin. England fumed, but Germany took her place behind Austria. England was not ready for war, but immediately after the arising of this issue she doubled her navy building plans, having secured a three years' lead of all other navies by her Dreadnought principles, a matter discussed elsewhere in this book. Russia, also, was incensed by the seizure of Bosnia, but she had just been defeated in the Russo-Japanese War and was in no position to offend Austria and Germany. It is of interest to note that this was one of the ties which helped to make an Alliance between England and Russia.

Macedonia Taken From Turkey.

Macedonia, with its main port of Saloniki, now took the center of the stage. Greece, Turkey, Serbia, Bulgaria, Austria and Italy all wanted it. In 1912 a series of treaties between the Balkan States were made, local enmities were set aside and these states set their shoulders to the wheel to get "reforms" for Macedonia. All diplomats knew that after Macedonia was wrenched from Turkey, the Balkan States would commence to quarrel among themselves over the spoils. The "Concert of Europe"—which is a term meaning the united action of the diplomatic offices or chancelleries of the Great Powers—ordered the Balkan States to keep quiet. But Bulgaria had wonderful French artillery, while Turkey had recently undergone a military reorganization by the Prussian general Von der Goltz and possessed modern big guns from Krupps. The First Balkan War began on October 18, 1912. In fourteen days Turkey was utterly whipped in the north by the Balkan States, nine days later she was routed out of Saloniki by the Greeks. It took until April 22, 1913, however, before the gallant little army of Montenegrins reduced the great Turkish fortress of Scutari.

The Treaty of London, closing this war, was signed on May 1, 1913. The efforts of the Balkan States had been successful. Greece had secured Crete. The Macedonian problem was settled so far as "The Sick Man of Europe"—a common name for Turkey—was concerned. Montenegro, Serbia, Bulgaria and Greece had each received new acquisitions of territory. But—there is always a "but" in treaties—Austria was dissatisfied, and she fomented trouble between the Balkan States so cleverly that four weeks later, on May 28, 1913, Serbia sent an ultimatum to Bulgaria. The case grew so serious that on June 8, the Czar begged Bulgaria and Serbia "not to dim the glory they had earned in common by a fratricidal war."

To the Teutonic dream of a Berlin-to-Bagdad railway—a matter to be discussed in a later chapter—peace in the Balkans was a hindrance. It meant a Slav barrier to German influence. So Germany set herself on the side of Bulgaria and fanned the flames of race hatred. Herein, largely, lies the explanation of the alliance between Germany and Bulgaria in the Great War.

The Treaty of Bucharest.

Thanks to German spurring, the Second Balkan War broke out on June 29, 1913, by a cold-blooded, unprovoked Bulgarian attack. It was arranged by Germany and was of a piece with Germany's invasion of Belgium thirteen months later. The war was as brief as it was vindictive, ferocious and bloody. Greece to the south and Roumania to the north smashed Bulgaria utterly. Armistice was signed a month later, on July 30, 1913.

The Treaty, or as it is known, the "Peace" of Bucharest was signed on August 10, 1913, making a new map of the Balkans. The results were: (a) Turkey in Europe almost disappeared, (b) Roumania gained 2,687 square miles and 286,000 population at the expense of Bulgaria, (c) Serbia nearly doubled her territory and added 1,500,000 inhabitants, also, largely at Bulgaria's expense, (d) Greece had done still better, gaining 18,000 square miles and 1,700,000 inhabitants, mainly at the expense of Turkey, and (e) Montenegro had gained a quarter of a million people. To offset these huge losses, Bulgaria got only 9,660 square miles and 125,000 inhabitants. This left Bulgaria ravished and wrathful, looking to Germany to aid her in revenge.

The "Peace" of Bucharest was the eastern cause of the breaking out of the world war.

To make clear the alignment of the powers, great and small, in the Great War, there remains now only to show the upbuilding of the Alliance. The first of these was the unification of the loose confederated state of Germany into the German Empire. The importance of this lay in the fact that Germany was a unit. Alliance between Germany and France was impossible as long as Alsace-Lorraine rankled Alliance between Germany and England was impossible because of Bosnia and Bulgaria. That left only Russia and Austria. Alliance with both at the same time was impossible because Austria and Russia were arrayed one against the other on all Balkan questions. It was necessary to make a choice. Bismarck figured that an alliance with Russia was an alliance between equals, while with Austria, owing to the civil dissension in that ramshackle empire, the ally would become a tool. Tools were useful. On October 7, 1879, Germany and Austria became allies.

The Creation of the Triple Alliance.

This undermined the rather dim "League of the Three Emperors," the rulers of Germany, Austria and Russia, which had been a matter of court intrigue and courtesy during the early seventies. This League, indeed, perished of itself in 1881 when Czar Alexander II was assassinated by terrorist nihilists.

Curiously enough, it was at another corner of the world that trouble was renewed between the powers, and, this time, France was the aggressor. Possessing control of Algeria, France cast longing eyes at Tunis. On a flimsy pretext she sent an army into Tunis and, though her action was a menace to Italy, seized that African coast country and made it a French protectorate. France had dared to do this, for Bismarck had hinted that Germany would not interfere, Bismarck's intention being to sow the seeds of dissension between France and Italy. Rome was unable to interfere, for she was not a member of any alliance and she was not strong enough to attack France singlehanded.

This Tunis trouble created the Triple Alliance. A few months after France had seized Tunis, the King of Italy visited his hereditary foe, the Emperor of Austria. He waived the ancient claims to "Italia Irredenta"—to be explained in a later chapter—and entered into a

defensive alliance with Germany and Austria. The word *defensive* is important, for Italy refused to enter the world war in 1914 on the ground that the war was an *aggressive* war and she was not bound to keep the pact. The treaty was signed on May 22, 1882.

This disturbed the "balance of power in Europe"—a phrase which means that no coalition of nations shall be allowed to become so strong as to endanger all the other nations. Accordingly France loaned to Russia the sum of twelve billion francs, at various times, and in 1891 a secret "Dual Alliance" was formed between Russia and France. It was not officially announced for several years, but all the chancelleries of Europe knew that it existed. Its chief importance lay in the fact that Germany and Austria could not act either in the east or the west without having to defend their eastern and western borders simultaneously. This was exactly what happened in the Great War.

The Triple Entente Is Formed.

In very truth, France should have come to the aid of Russia against Japan, in 1905, but, just at this moment, Germany, who wished to see Russia defeated, threatened France in the question of Morocco. There was an Anglo-French agreement in Morocco and to push the matter to an issue meant a sea war for which Germany, with an inadequate navy at that time, was quite unfitted. The Act of Algeciras tided over the storm.

Italy now was growing restive under the "unholy" Triple Alliance, yet she saw an opportunity to use it. Resentful at the seizure of Bosnia by Austria and a witness to the weakening of Turkey, Italy decided to seize Tripoli, the last of Turkey's possessions on the north coast of Africa. She sent a forty-eight hours' ultimatum, and on September 29, 1911, Italy declared war. The contest was one-sided but a year elapsed before the Treaty of Lausanne, October 15, 1912, gave Tripoli to Italy.

From what has already been said, it is evident that a new combination of forces had been formed, which became known as the "Triple Entente." This was not a formal alliance. It was merely the interlocking of two mutually supporting pacts, the Dual Alliance and the Anglo-French agreement, between France and Russia and France and England respectively. To make this a true "Entente" the third side of this triangle was necessary, namely, an Anglo-Russian understand-

ing. This resulted after the Russo-Japanese War. As long as Russia's aims for outlet to the sea were in the far east, that threatened England's sphere of influence in China and brought a new power into the Pacific Ocean, hence England must needs be Russia's enemy. When Russia's aims for an outlet approached the near east or the Balkans, she interfered with the plans of Germany and England became Russia's friend. Besides, England had steadily supported Slavic aspirations in the Balkans as against Teutonic aims. A secret Anglo-Russian agreement cemented the Triple Entente.

When the Great War actually broke out in 1914 Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey possessed a similarity of interests. The reasons for their alliance were firm and strong, for the reasons already set forth. Likewise England and France had common interests as had Serbia and Russia. The stage was set and the hostile forces arrayed when Germany rang up the bloody curtain in July-August, 1914. Envy, hatred, malice and all uncharitableness found vent at the cannon's mouth.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE ALLIED NATIONS—A GENERAL REVIEW.

Military, Political and Economic Conditions of the Twenty-four Nations Aligned Against the Central Powers—Colonies of the Allies in Africa, Asia and Oceanica—Gradual Change in World Sentiment During the War—Shipping the Key to Victory.

"WHOEVER is a human being at all is also a moral human being. In face of this truth, no isolated occurrences have any importance save as phenomena, and so it is with war." So sums up Doctor Nicolai in "The Biology of War," one of the few remarkable books that the world war has produced, whether his conclusions be approved or not. In considering the relations of the Allied Nations this is the main issue to be remembered—that it was as a moral question, mainly, that the Allies entered the war. France entered the war purely for defense, England because her honor was concerned to support Belgium. Italy because she could not condone Austria's aggressions on the smaller Balkan Nations, and the United States because of German atrocities and submarine piracy.

The first war declaration was that of Austria against Serbia, July 28, 1914. This was, as yet, only a local war. France and Germany mutually declared war August 3, 1914. This rendered it a land war on both sides of Europe. Belgium and Germany mutually declared war the next day, August 4, 1914, and on the same day Great Britain declared war against Germany. This made it a European War. The United States declared war on Germany April 6, 1917. This made the conflict a world war, Japan having entered the fray on August 23, 1914.

Adopting the classification of the State Department at Washington, there are forty-nine independent nations on the globe. There are five other small states whose independence is questionable, but they are small and may be left out of the count. Of these 49 nations, 24 declared war against the 4 Central Powers. There were, thus, at the close of the war, 28 nations involved. Five had broken diplomatic relations with Germany, without declaring war, making 33 nations which were not at peace. Sixteen nations remained neutral, these six-

teen nations, however, totalling less than one-sixteenth of the world's whole population.

Of the 24 nations which were definitely aligned against Germany, two made a separate peace. Russia signed a peace treaty with the Central Powers on March 3, 1918, and Roumania did likewise on May 7, 1918. Greece remained in confusion throughout the war, toward the end, however, the pro-Ally spirit of the people rising superior to the pro-German spirit of the court.

Regarded from a military aspect, the war declarations of Brazil, Costa Rica, China, Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, San Marino and Siam had little effect on the result. The total number of soldiers sent overseas by these nations—some did not send a single man or a single gun—was negligible. The situation by states, therefore, at the end of the war may be summarized as follows: Central Powers, 4; Allied Military Powers, 10; nations which joined the Allies by sympathetic declarations of war, 12; nations which joined the Allies by sympathetic severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, 5; nations which made a separate peace, 2; neutrals, 16.

Immensity of Great Britain and Her Colonies.

The British Empire, approximately, contains 11,705,900 square miles, inclusive of small islands, exclusive of a few protectorates which are practically independent, and exclusive of "spheres of influence." It is therefore more than three times as large as the United States, Alaska and all other possessions included. Its population reaches the staggering figure of 363,785,000, or almost four times as large as that of the United States. At the same time it would be absurd to draw an exact parallel between either areas or populations. For example, the area of the island of Kong Kong is 32 square miles, while the population is 360,000; the area of Labrador is 120,000 square miles and the population is 4,000. Again, it is to be remembered that large parts of British Imperial Territory are almost exclusively native; Swaziland, for example, which has 100,000 Zulus to 900 whites.

From the economic point of view the British Empire is immeasurably larger than any other power. Approximately her foreign commerce, export and import combined, is $10,000,000,000 annually as against $6,000,000,000 for the United States, $5,000,000,000 for the Ger-

man Empire, $2,500,000,000 for France and $2,000,000,000 for Holland. Indeed, if some of the protectorates of the British Empire be added (as the German Customs Union does) then the commerce of the British Empire is greater than that of all the countries and empires of Europe put together.

From the military point of view, the British Empire showed an extraordinary ability to raise men during the war. On August 4, 1918, at the close of the fourth year of the war, the British Empire had raised 7,500,000 men, irrespective of her immense naval force. Her expenditures for military and naval purposes alone, during the war, were $34,210,000,000 and she lent in cash and credit to her allies the sum of $16,000,000,000. Without considering internal affairs, therefore, the British Empire has devoted fifty billions of dollars to the war. The contributions of other nations, both in men and money, are small beside these figures.

Superiority of Great Britain's Navy.

So far as her navy is concerned, the British Empire has been mistress of the seas from the first day of the war. Without the aid of the French and Italian navies, both of the first class of excellence, she was ship for ship and gun for gun almost in a proportion of three to two against the combined navies of the Central Powers. During the war she put ten immense super-Dreadnoughts into the water, any one of them larger than the largest German battleship and armed with 15-inch guns, not to be found on any ship of the enemy navy.

It is a truism that mercantile shipping was one of the dominant factors of the war. Throughout the four years of the conflict, three-fifths of the transport of troops, munitions, supplies and provisions were carried in British vessels. Even when the United States entered the war, according to Secretary Baker's statement, more than one-half the American troops were carried across in English ships.

The second power in importance to enter the war with the Allies was the United States. As a large part of this book is given to America's share in the war, there is no need to duplicate the figures here.

The Republic of France, with her colonies, ranks as the third power among the Allies. The total area of her possessions is 4,056,000 square

miles, with a population of 89,435,000 or nearly as large as the population of the Continental United States. About 55,000,000 of these are whites.

The economic strength of France lies not so much in her commerce as in her internal affairs. Even so, her foreign commerce reaches the figure of $3,650,000,000. Aside from Argentina, which did not enter the war, France is far and away the richest country per capita, more than twice as rich as the United States. Per head of population France at the opening of the war had $83.06 in bank, the United States had $39.58, the British Empire had $30.12, Italy had $26.97, and the German Empire had $21.84, less even than miserable Turkey. It was an open commercial secret that, at the opening of the war, Germany was on the edge of national bankruptcy.

From the military point of view, the strength of France was almost incredible. She raised for war purposes 5,250,000 men, inclusive of native troops. Though robbed, at the outset of the war, of her principal coal and iron mines, within fourteen months of the opening of the war she was able to keep pace in munition manufacture with the unparalleled demands produced by modern war. In extraordinary expenditure she raised the sum of $16,000,000,000 and this in a manner which showed that her resources were not exhausted. Her navy held the Mediterranean, and the devotion of her women kept industry and agriculture at full blast.

Strength of Japan and Italy.

The fourth power was Japan, who declared war against Germany, August 23, 1914. As, however, she entered the war with the distinct understanding that her interests lay to the east, she is not to be regarded as a complete military ally. Her area is only 245,000 square miles but her population is 81,000,000, the same size as the German Empire. Her internal economic strength is poor from the European point of view, being but $4.60 per capita, an utterly disproportionate figure, for it is based on stocks of money and Japan has an entirely different fiscal system. Her imports and exports, however, are also small, reaching but $700,000,000 annually. Her military and naval force is strong and her prestige in the East is enormous.

The fifth of the Allied Military Powers was Italy, who declared

war against Austria, May 24, 1915. Her area (including her possessions) is 2,000,000 square miles, about half that of France. Her total population is approximately 37,500,000. Italy has a foreign commerce of well over $1,000,000,000 and possesses a considerable mercantile fleet. As a military nation, Italy is of the first rank. Her soldiers are famous for their gallantry. From the point of view of modern war, Italy is sadly lacking in the ability to supply herself with munitions, mainly for industrial reasons. She was able to put 3,750,000 men into the field, but was dependent largely on the Allies for military supplies. In aviation, she was foremost. Internal difficulties—related in the chapter on Italy—complicated her financial status several times during the war.

Little Belgium comes sixth in size, though, possibly, first in what may be called the importance of sentiment. The area of Belgium and her colonies is 100,000 square miles and the population is 22,000,000. But Belgium cannot draw on her colonies in the same way that England can call on Canada, or France on Algeria. Belgium's only large colony is the Congo, unavailing as a military asset. Belgium herself has but an area of 11,000 square miles with a population of 7,500,000.

Economically and industrially Belgium is an important nation. Her per capita wealth is low, largely because of her peculiar place among the nations, but her commerce movements are very large in proportion to her size, in fact, reaching the figure of $1,700,000,000. This is three-quarters again as much as Italy. The military side of Belgium is bound up with the question of her compulsory neutrality. Roughly, 120,000 men would be needed for fortress duties, giving a field army of 80,000. As a matter of fact, Belgium succeeded in building up a field army of 250,000 heroes, who saved a corner of their country from the Hun invasion. She has no navy.

Statistics of Belgium and Portugal.

Portugal, the seventh power in size, though far removed from the scene of conflict, came into the war gallantly, becoming a British ally on November 23, 1914, and declaring war on Germany May 19, 1915. A comparatively small country, of 840,000 square miles, she has a population of 15,000,000; of this, however, Portugal herself has an area of only 35,000 square miles with 6,000,000 population. Compared, for ex-

ample, with Spain, she is advanced and progressive. Economically she is stable with a per capita stock of money of $28.66, and a foreign commerce of $171,000,000 annually. She sent about 200,000 men to the front after the declaration of war (mainly line regiments), which she entered as an ally of England and because of the German submarine policy with regard to neutral shipping.

Greece, the eighth of these nations, is small, having an area of 45,000 square miles, a population of 5,000,000, a wretched economic system and a commerce which does not reach $60,000,000 annually. Her internal affairs are perpetually in a state of disquietude, and her army is perforated with politics. She did not declare war until November 28, 1916, recalled it, declared war anew on July 2, 1917, and generally hindered the Allies as much as she helped them.

Serbia, the ninth allied country, fought bravely but was soon out of the conflict, her territory having been taken by conquest. In the chapter on Serbia will be found the whole territorial question. Actually at the opening of war, she had an area of 33,000 square miles and a population of 4,500,000. Her economic condition was woeful and her commerce only $125,000,000 annually. Her military aid was large, but ineffective.

Montenegro, the tenth and last of the nations which joined the Allies and which fought well, is a tiny kingdom of 5,000 square miles, less than half the size of Belgium, with a population of only 500,000. She declared war on Germany August 9, 1914. She is a primitive country of gallant fighters.

Military Resources Compared.

A comparison of the military resources of the Allies and of the Central Powers is in itself impossible. The population basis would be nonsense, for a large part of the British and French Empires and Belgian possessions were natives. Armies on a peace basis form a false comparison, for no two countries have the same basis of estimate nor the same training. Moreover, owing to the extraordinary differences in mobilization and the fact that the Allies did not all enter the war at the same date, any set of figures would be misleading. It will be necessary once more to generalize.

In the roughest possible way, and merely to give figures in gross,

it may be said that the Central Powers, during the whole course of the war, put 12,000,000 men in the field (inclusive of active reserves). The Allies, including the United States, put 17,000,000 men in the field. But, on the other hand, on the first day of the war, Germany put 3,000,000 on the western front when the Allies did not have 1,000,000, and she threw 1,000,000 on the eastern front when the Allied mobilization did not reach 500,000. The war began with a balance of three to one in favor of the Central Powers. At the end of the first year, Germany's proportionate strength had been reduced to from five to four. At the end of the second year the Allies were slightly stronger in the number of men engaged. When the United States declared war on April 6, 1917, the Allies were five to four and the addition of the American troops turned the scale definitely to the Allies.

It is worthy of note that the success of Germany at the beginning and the defeat of Germany at the end bears a very close relation to these figures of comparative strength. Undoubtedly, the right did prevail, but not until right had become might. Undoubtedly, the German morale broke down, but not until the power of brute force broke it down. It would be living in a fools' paradise not to realize that the world's war was won by the side which was able to put into the field the largest number of fighting men, and the heaviest weight of metal in the storm of shot and shell. The moral issue counts for much, leadership counts for much, the spirit of an army counts for much, but the whole history of this war, internal and external, supports the famous military dictum that "Providence is on the side of the heaviest battalions."

CHAPTER XXVIII.

THE BRITISH LION AND THE LION-CUBS.

The Empire as a Whole—England, Scotland and Wales—Ireland—Dominion of Canada—Newfoundland—Commonwealth of Australia—Dominion of New Zealand—Union of South Africa—Anglo-Egypt—India—Naval Bases—Imperial Aims Realized.

THE British Empire exists by three forces, the gift of colonization, the force of a powerful navy, and the ingenuity with which it has interwoven its own interests with those of the world's commerce. In its colonial policy it has learned to administer rather than rule, in its naval policy it has learned to guard rather than conquer, in its commercial policy it has learned to dare the hazards of Free Trade instead of timidly shrinking behind the wall of Protection.

The British Empire as it existed at the beginning of the war, did not assume its entirety until May 31, 1902, when the Peace Treaty of Pretoria was signed, ending the Boer War. The importance of this can scarcely be over-estimated when it is remembered that Boer generals and Boer troops were England's valued allies in the Great War, operating in the campaigns against German East Africa and German South-West Africa.

Origin of the English People.

From a strictly international point of view, the British Empire did not exist at all until January 1, 1877, when Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India at the durbar of Delhi. This technical division, however, is calculated to mislead, for long before that time, Great Britain and Ireland, her colonies and her possessions were an empire in fact, if not in name. In order to set clearly forth the characters of these component parts of a widely scattered empire, it will be well to deal with them separately.

The English are a people of Teutonic origin, with a slight, a very slight, sprinkling of Celtic blood, except in the two Celtic counties of Cornwall and Devonshire. The Angles were Danes, the Saxons were Germans, hence the Anglo-Saxon race is first cousin to the modern German and of the same stock. Its only admixture was that of the Normans, a French-speaking colony of Scandinavians, who were Teutons also. England, as such, took form in 1066 when the Norman invaders usurped the throne.

Scotland is a country racially divided into two sharp and distinct

parts, the Lowlands and the Highlands. The original inhabitants of Scotland, the Picts and the Scots (the latter of whom came from Ireland) were Celts, and they were gradually pushed to the north by the intruding English. The Lowlands thus became occupied by English-speaking Teutons, the Highlands and islands were occupied by Gaelic-speaking Celts. James VI of Scotland became James I of England in 1603, thus creating an alliance between two nations. Scotland is not a conquered country and possesses a number of curious privileges unique in the British Empire.

Wales is a country predominantly Celtic, where the national tongue is widely spoken. It was always bitterly opposed to the Anglo-Saxons and to the Normans, but was finally conquered in 1283. In order to pacify the gallant Welsh, however, it remained a nominal principality, and, since 1301, the title and honors of Prince of Wales are associated with the recognized heir of the British Crown.

The Modern Irish Question.

Great Britain, thus, is to be considered as a historic unit of two races and two language groups, the English overwhelmingly the greatest in importance. Geographic Isolation has welded these three kingdoms into one whole, utterly heterogeneous in themselves and each possessing a different religious problem besides, yet still able to think and act together. England is the spokesman for all.

Ireland is a very different matter. To begin with, Ireland is mainly Celtic and has always been totally Celtic until the colonization of the north-east tip of the island, by Lowland Scotch, who, as has been shown before, are Teutons. These men, who settled in the ancient Kingdom of Ulster, are Presbyterians. They are called Orangemen because they supported the Protestant King William III (William of Orange), and are rancorous haters of the Roman Catholics, by whom more than two-thirds of Ireland is populated.

The modern Irish question depends largely on the presence in one small island of these two irreconcilable groups, the one Teuton and Protestant, the other Celtic and Roman Catholic. It is further complicated by the fact that the Protestant minority is supported by England, which feeds the flames of animosity on the part of the majority. To offset this, it should be added that the Ulstermen are loyal to Great Britain, are frugal, progressive and leaders of industrialism; the Irish

are generally credited with being wasteful, indifferent to progress and but shiftless agriculturists.

The history of Ireland cannot be written without controversy, because neither English nor Irish historians tell the truth. A few facts, undisputed by both sides, must suffice. It is for the reader to draw his own conclusions. Ireland was conquered by Henry II in 1171. One hundred and fifty years later, Ireland had shaken off English control and was under her chiefs, again. Wherefore, in 1361, Edward III, a powerful monarch, divided Ireland into two parts, Irish Ireland and English Ireland, and drew up for its governance the famous Statute of Kilkenny.

Oppression of Ireland.

Some of the provisions in this statute show its tenor. Thus for an Englishman to marry an Irish girl was high treason, punishable with death. Any merchant selling a horse or a weapon to an Irishman was to be cut into pieces. For an Irishman to wear his own costume was punishable with imprisonment. Killing an Irishman was declared not to be a crime. No Irishman (except a selected list of families) was allowed to plead in court. Speaking Irish was made penal. This Statute was followed by English acts even more ferocious, some too disgusting and bloody to quote. The natural result was that Ireland was in a state of constant rebellion and the gory history grew even more terrible.

As if this were not enough, later centuries saw an effort to force Protestantism on Ireland, whether she would or no. The property of four hundred monasteries—most of them, poor—was confiscated, and the Protestant Reformers of England sent soldiers to desecrate every church, and destroy every holy relic they could find. When the staff of St. Patrick, which was believed to have been used by the Savior, was publicly burnt in the market-place of Dublin by the English authorities, another link was forged in the chain of horror and hatred.

Three risings were put down by an iron hand and food was confiscated, for "only starvation," said the Lord Lieutenant, "can tame wild beasts." In 1798 all Ireland rose in rebellion, but could do nothing against the might of England. Every one of the leaders was either shot, hanged or died in prison. Matters smouldered until the Great Famine of 1845, where, for a while, England came to the rescue and

sent over quantities of food. But the famine was beyond help. In whole districts not one soul was left alive, it was impossible to bury the corpses in others and one-third of the population of Ireland perished of starvation and disease between the years 1845 and 1849, or emigrated to America. Fenianism sprang up immediately, but it was not widely supported by the disheartened Irish.

With Mr. Gladstone and the Irish Land Act of 1870 begins the modern period when England strove, as she still is striving, to bring peace and content in Ireland.

To discuss Home Rule is outside the scope of this book, but one may say, simply, that Home Rule is a phrase embodying the idea that the Irish, as Irish, should have some rights of their own in Ireland and that such rights can only be safeguarded by some form of self-government. Gladstone fought hard for Home Rule of a certain sort, but all his schemes were too little for Ireland and too much for England, so nothing came of it.

The Sinn Fein Movement.

The history of the succeeding thirty years and more, right up to the beginning of the war, throws much of the blame on the Irish side. Now that England was willing to grant some amelioration, the Irish could not agree on what they wanted, and this disagreement was due to the antagonism of the Orangemen. Once established in Ireland, they had a perfect right to be heard and to protect their own interests.

In 1913, civil war threatened momentarily. Sir Edward Carson, the leader of Ulster, armed and equipped 50,000 men with complete artillery units, announcing his intention to set up a Provisional Government hostile both to England and to Ireland if the Home Rule Bill, then before Parliament, were passed. The Irish leaders declared that England winked at Carson's disloyalty, as it afforded a reason for refusing Home Rule to Ireland. This is a matter of controversy. Both sides produce contradictory documents. The truth is not publicly known.

It is at this point that the Sinn Fein movement began to take a prominent place. In brief, it was and is a movement to develop industry, agriculture, education, language and citizenship in Ireland, on the principle that the Irish are a free people. The aims are true, the principle is false. Ireland is a conquered people.

In answer to the defiance of the Ulster Volunteers, however, the Irish commenced to raise and equip an army of Irish or National Volunteers. The British government at once acted, and though there had been no law to prohibit the shipment of arms to Ulster, within three weeks England forbade any such shipments to Ireland.

This was the situation in the first half of 1914. Ulster and Ireland growing more and more wide apart, as further arms were brought in secretly. English garrisons in Ireland were increased and every preparation was made in the event of civil war. It is small wonder that the German agents in Ireland reported to the Kaiser that the situation in Ireland was so grave that if he started war with France, England was in too strained a position to dare to join in. In fact, July 30, 1914, the day Russia mobilized and Berlin prepared her ultimatum, was the day named for a debate in the British Parliament which might set Ulster and Ireland at each others' throats.

Loyalty of a Conquered People.

What happened? In view of the strained European situation the debate was postponed by mutual consent and on August 3, John Redmond, leader of the Irish Party in Parliament, uttered a speech in which occurred the following words: "Today there are in Ireland two large bodies of Volunteers. One of them sprang into existence in the North. Another has sprung into existence in the South. I say to the Government that they may tomorrow withdraw every one of their troops from Ireland. I say that the coasts of Ireland will be defended from foreign invasion by her armed sons, and for this purpose armed Nationalist Catholics in the South will be only too glad to join arms with armed Protestant Ulstermen in the North." Carson was swift to endorse this policy. Loyalty is not required of a conquered people, but Ireland's representatives in Parliament offered it voluntarily.

Carson might speak for all Ulster, but Redmond, certainly, did not speak for all Ireland. Recruiting was slow in Ireland and the efforts of the English recruiting sergeant were open to grave question. The Irish were willing to defend Ireland and the Empire, but not all of them were willing to fight against Germany in what they felt to be England's quarrel. England, though she soon came to a desperate need for men, did not dare enforce conscription in Ireland. The ever-recurring threats of it brought about the actual moment of the rebellion of 1916.

No one who knows the facts of the case will deny that Sir Roger Casement and many leaders of the seven brotherhoods—headed by the Sinn Fein—were in correspondence with Germany. Arms had been sent from Germany, financial as well as moral support obtained from Berlin. A conquered people, the Sinn Feiners argued, in seeking to free itself had an intrinsic right to seek aid wherever it could. England would not aid Ireland to become a Republic; Germany would do so. There was the issue in a nutshell.

The Dublin Rebellion.

The Irish Republic was proclaimed April 23, 1916. The banner of England was hauled down on the Dublin Post Office and the Green, White and Orange tricolor was hoisted in its place. Dublin Castle was seized. Seventy-one towns throughout Ireland were in the hands of the adherents of the Irish Republic by April 25. The Battle of Dublin began April 26, 1918. There were but 1,100 Irish against 60,000 seasoned English troops. The gunboat *Helga* turned her guns on the city. Dublin was set on fire. The fight raged for three days and nights continuously but on April 29 the leaders of the revolt surrendered to the English, and the First Irish Republic was at an end.

Four days later three of the leaders, including President Pearse, were court-martialed and shot, the next day four more were executed, and, the day after, a boy paid the last penalty. On May 12 the remaining two of the leaders were shot, likewise. Sir Roger Casement was tried for high treason and hanged August 3, 1916. This was the end of the "First Irish Republic" or "The Dublin Rebellion," according to the point of view of the writer, but it was not the end of Sinn Fein, nor yet of Ireland.

Canada's place in the Great War begins with the great duel between the then two master powers of Europe—England and France—which is immortalized in the names Montcalm and Wolfe. This duel ended in 1759, formal cession of Canada, which included New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, being made in 1763. The Oregon Boundary Treaty of 1846 defined the lands of England and the United States respectively, in the west, and British Columbia—the name is worth a moment's thought—was occupied in 1858. The Dominion of Canada was proclaimed in 1867, and the Northwest Territories embracing in part the Provinces now known as Manitoba, Alberta and Saskatchewan were purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company in 1869.

As has been shown, Canada sprang eagerly into the War and displayed a loyalty equal only to the gallantry of her soldiers. The story of the Canadians at Ypres, when poison gas was used for the first time, is one of the greatest epics of courage in human history.

None the less, Quebec's relation to the war belongs definitely to the class of world problems. The province of Quebec contains about one-quarter of the total population of Canada, yet it contributed less than one twenty-fifth of the total number of volunteers. Bourassa, the leader of the Quebec Nationalists, openly discouraged enlistment and declared that "it is the duty of England to defend Canada, not of Canada to defend England." The reason of this feeling in the Province of Quebec lies in the fact that of its population of 2,000,000 people, over 1,600,000 are of French origin and not British.

Loyalty of Australia and New Zealand.

French Canadians are more French than France, just as British Canadians are more English than England. The disestablishment of the Roman Catholic Church in France and the rise of French liberalism found little echo in Quebec. The "habitant" is intensely self-centred and jealous of his provincial integrity, and the war, to him, seemed remote. Conscription was forced in 1917 and a revolt of no small magnitude resulted, a revolt so dangerous that all the news of it was censored out of the press. When order was restored the citizens of Quebec were conscripted against their will, though, once under arms, they acquitted themselves well. There seems no sufficient reason for crediting the suspicion that German propaganda was influential in the matter.

Australia has no such racial and religious complications as Canada. Holland explorers had (probably) sighted the land in the seventeenth century, but Captain Cook truly discovered New South Wales in 1770, and in 1786 it became a convict settlement on the plantation system, criminals being transported thither for over fifty years.

In 1850 the British Parliament issued an act allowing the Australian colonies the right to choose their own form of government, and New South Wales became a state after the Canadian pattern in 1856. Victoria, separated from New South Wales five years before, took the same step. Queensland became a separate colony in 1859, South Australia was of the vintage of 1856. Western Australia became a convict settlement after Botany Bay was abolished and attained partial freedom

in 1870 and powers similar to other Austrial states in 1890. The Island of Tasmania, or Van Diemen's Land, a dependency of New South Wales, was included in the 1856 agreement. The Northern Territory of Australia is not a state but a territory under the control of the Commonwealth government by permission of South Australia, in 1911. The Commonwealth of Australia, consisting of these six colonies, was proclaimed January 1, 1901, and controls the entire continent, including the island of Tasmania.

The world will never hereafter fail to group Australia and New Zealand together in a dual alliance of heroism. The word "Anzac"—which was taken from the initial letters of the A-ustralian and N-ew Z-ealand A-rmy C-orps—has become synonymous with desperate courage and high-hearted resolve. The story of the Gallipolis Peninsula, told elsewhere in this book, is a tale of deeds that rank with those of the Paladins of old time.

England's Enlarged Interests in India.

Yet, in truth, Australia and New Zealand are radically different in many ways. Melbourne and Auckland are almost the same distance apart as New York and Liverpool. Australia is largely a waterless desert, New Zealand is a country of sea-coast and mountain torrents. Australia is conservative, New Zealand is frankly a socialistic state. None the less, in spite of its doctrinaire ideas, New Zealand sent a larger proportion of volunteers in relation to her population than any other large colony of the British Empire.

The Indian Empire is the most marvellous piece of administration yet achieved in the history of nations. Clive, Hastings, and their successors, in the name of a commercial venture, The East India Company, won India by the sword. By 1818, the company was supreme in India south of the Sutlej. During the next half-century, Bengal, Orissa and Bihar had been annexed, Oudh and Hyderabad were ruled by subject princes, the Central Indian chieftains were merely vassals and even the Emperor at Delhi was a puppet whose strings were pulled by the company. The conquest of the warlike Sikhs of the Punjab carried British power to the foot of the Himalayas.

Then came "The Year." The Sepoy Mutiny was not an Indian Revolution, far from it, for neither did the Punjab nor any part of South India take part in it. Yet it was exceedingly grave, for it took

the character of a Holy War. The strife was bitter and bloody, and when the desperate fighting ended with the victory of the British troops, England realized that a more definite form of government than that of the East India Company was needed. In 1858 the sovereignty of India passed to the British Crown and in 1877 Victoria, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, was acclaimed Empress of India.

It may be well to point out that, since that time, England had steadily enlarged her Indian Empire. Harsh critics have alleged that "there has never been a time when England was not engaged in planning or fighting a war of conquest," and, in a measure, this is true. For example, during the fifty years preceding the Great War, England's march in India runs as follows: in 1871 British India was 860,000 square miles; in 1881, 875,000 sq. m.; in 1891, 964,000 sq. m.; in 1901, 1,097,000 sq. m.; and in 1911, it was 1,093,000 sq. m. During the fifty years these additions have placed 50,000,000 more people under British rule.

Loyalty of the Indian Empire.

To say that there is never a time when there is not some discontent in India is a platitude, but it is more powerfully true to say that India has never been so well content. The Christians form less than two per cent. of the population of India, the racial mixture is far more complicated than the whole of Europe, there are four huge and vividly opposed religions to say nothing of internecine creed divisions, there are a dozen important and contradictory national aspirations, yet India is at peace and superbly governed.

Instead of the policy of repression which England adopted in Ireland and in the English Colonies of America, which cost her the latter and has made the former a constant thorn in her side, England has steadily pursued in India the policy of understanding, help and enlightenment. The result is a tribute of loyalty which seems incredible. In the teeth of a well organized and heavily subsidized German propaganda to provoke a revolt, every part and corner of India stayed true.

Turkey, incited by Germany, proclaimed a "Holy War" of the Mohammedans against the Christians. India's answer was found in the resolutions of the All-Indian Moslem League pledging "the loyal support of the imperial cause by the Musselmans of India."

In 1915 Germany announced that the Indian troops had been coerced into the war and that England had been compelled to send

increased white armies to India. The facts of the case are that England reduced the number of her garrisoned troops from 75,000 in 1914 to 10,000 in 1918, the latter number being merely a skeleton to keep garrison posts together. As for coercion, most of the 325,000 troops given by India were furnished by native princes, who led their forces in person. The Sikhs from the Punjab are accounted among the bravest soldiers of the world, but the Ghurkas, Rajputs and Parthians also won glorious records in the war.

India's financial support was large, the Nizam of Hyderabad alone personally contributing $10,000,000. India contributed half a billion dollars in voluntary contributions, and supported her own armies in the field. The students, among whom Germany counted most to foment disturbance, organized themselves into hospital units and the Kaiser's agents, having pocketed the money they were paid for their false reports as to India's mutinous condition, slunk away.

England's Possessions in Africa.

If India, the goal of Germany's propagandist efforts, proved so faithful, what must have been the feeling in Berlin at the outcome in South Africa? There, perhaps, of all corners of the empire, the Teutons might well have expected the outburst of flames of hate. It cannot be denied that if South Africa turned upon the Empire she could have found reasons a-plenty.

The African possessions of the British Empire form three groups, the Union of South Africa and Rhodesia, British East Africa and the Nile countries, including the Soudan and Egypt. British East Africa, including Uganda, may be dismissed with a word. These two protectorates possess a population of 7,000,000, are rich in resources, and, when the war broke out, they became the backbone of England's long-drawn-out war with Germany's most valuable colony, German East Africa.

Honesty compels the statement that, viewed from the historical aspect, England's claims in South Africa are those of the usurper. Cape Colony was taken—not to say stolen—from Holland in 1795, a purchase treaty making this final in 1814. The population was nearly all Dutch. In 1828 the Dutch forms of law were abolished and English judges excluded Hollanders or Boers from a jury even when a prisoner and witnesses were Dutch. In many courts, the Dutch language might not be spoken.

Meantime, year after year, the boundary was pushed north and ever north. As the English flowed in from the south, the Dutch were driven away from the coast lands. Then, in 1833, came the abolition of slavery, and since the compensation allotted to the Dutch planters and farmers was less than half the estimated value of the slaves, the colonists deemed that the Crown had arrogantly deprived them of valuable property.

In 1834, without a word of warning, twelve thousand Kaffir warriors, angered by the encroachment of the whites upon their territories, crossed the frontier, robbing, burning and murdering. The British governor sent troops to punish the Kaffirs and seized a section of their land. The missionaries interfered and forced the territory to be given back, a most unwise move, for the Kaffirs interpreted it to mean that the white men were afraid. This ill-advised action irritated the already exasperated Boers still more and led in 1836, to the Great Trek when all the Boers left Cape Colony and marched north to found the Orange Free State and the South African Republic.

The War in South Africa.

Presently, after the First Zulu War, Natal became British Territory and in 1877 the Transvaal was annexed. Then followed the second and greater Zula War at the end of which British power was seen to be supreme. Then came the discovery of gold in the lands held by the Dutch trekkers, and England's cupidity was excited anew. The Boer War was brewing.

From a certain world-view England might be excused, but from no possible point of view could she be considered to be in the right. Even the English public felt this. Two absolutely contradictory principles were opposed—national pride and commercial gain. The Boer claimed patriotism and independence, the Briton claimed the progress of civilization.

The war, to England's surprise and discomfiture, demanded the output of vast armies, and the Boers, though few in number, inflicted many a defeat on Britain's best troops. The conflict ended in 1902, but England's victory was coupled with a great loss of prestige. The Treaty of Peace contained a promise of autonomy, and accordingly, in 1906 the Transvaal was proclaimed a self-governing colony. In 1910 the Colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Transvaal and the

Orange River were united in the Union of South Africa. In its parliament Boers and Britons sat side by side and General Botha, a Boer leader, was Prime Minister. Both English and Dutch were recognized as the official language and Dutch Law was adopted. Rhodesia, meanwhile, remained under English control, in the hands of the British South Africa Company.

In the history of the war, which is told elsewhere in this volume, one of the most significant facts is that the Commander of the forces which conquered German East Africa was General Smuts, a Boer, and a comrade of General Botha. As for Botha, though he had been commander-in-chief of the Boer Army when it was arrayed against England, in 1914 he swung the whole Dutch spirit of South Africa toward the British Empire. On September 13, 1914, the Parliament of the Union of South Africa, strongly controlled by a Dutch majority, pledged the support of South Africa to the Empire.

Events in Egypt.

German troops had been mobilized on the colonial frontier, but, on Botha's assurance, England ignored the threat and all the British troops were withdrawn. A few German-made revolts were put down by the populace themselves, and German Southwest Africa was conquered for the Empire by a Boer Army under General Botha, while, as has been said, General Smuts commanded the forces in the German East Africa campaign. Besides these bitter and costly campaigns on the African continent, South Africa shipped an expeditionary force of 60,000 troops overseas, and 10,000 Kaffirs were sent as laborers to France.

In the Great War, Egypt was a vital question. The Kaiser had not only announced his intention of dining in Paris, but he had also announced his plans for Germanizing the Suez Canal. This meant the shutting off of India. The entire Palestine question, with General Allenby's capture of Jerusalem, can only be understood by remembering that the Holy Land is the northern buffer state to Egypt.

The Mediterranean and Egypt question begins with the taking of Gibraltar in 1704. Malta, blockaded in 1800, was ceded by France to England in 1814. Thus England established a naval base at the entrance of the Mediterranean and another in the middle of that great inland sea. She had also wished a canal across Suez, but English

capital achieved the impossible, and the Suez Canal was opened in 1869. Then came the Franco-Prussian war, and, simultaneously came the bankruptcy of the spendthrift Khedive of Egypt who had been paid for the rights to his territory by one-half the shares of the Canal. England bought them from him, and, in 1876 the Canal came under the dual control of England and France.

A revolution broke loose in Egypt, still nominally a Turkish province, and the British fleet undertook to stop it. France feared complications with Turkey and the French fleet sailed away. The British warships opened their batteries. Dual Control was over. Thenceforward on English shoulders fell the burden of restoring order in Egypt. Not for a moment did England purpose the conquest of Egypt when the bombardment of Alexandria began, but an insurrection in the Soudan, under the Makdi, followed by the Soudanese invasion of Egypt and the murder of General Gordon at Kartoum, led to a war of reprisal which did not cease until "Kitchener of Khartoum" stood victorious on the field of Omdurman.

Germany's Misjudgment of Great Britain.

When the Great War broke out in 1914, Egypt was still nominally a Turkish province, but financially an English dependency. The diplomatic question, however, was always ticklish, and it soon became evident that the then Khedive was plotting with Germany. Since England was at war with Turkey, conquest would have been justifiable, but, by agreement between London and Paris, a protectorate was decided upon instead, the Khedive deposed and his uncle proclaimed Sultan. This protectorate has been recognized by the Allies, but not by the Central Powers. The Road to the East is now definitely in British hands, and, since British East Africa has fallen, there is no barrier to the completion of Cecil Rhodes' great dream, the Cape-to-Cairo railway.

Nothing looser, more heterogeneous and more scattering in type has ever been seen than the British Empire as it was when it entered the war. For this reason, largely, Germany hoped on, even after it became evident that the British Empire had thrown its full force into the struggle. Yet Germany forgot one thing. She judged England's colonial possessions by her own. She did not know that the loosest bonds are the tightest ones when forged in the spirit of Justice, Liberty and Fair Play. She staked her all on Organized Might, she lost her all on Co-operated Right.

CHAPTER XXIX.

BELGIUM, THE BATTLEFIELD OF EUROPE.

Congress of Vienna—Flemings and Walloons—Revolt for Independence—Intervention of the Powers—Perpetual Neutrality—Hunt for a King—Policy of Bismarck—German Treachery—Belgian Congo—A "scrap of paper"—Frightfulness and Atrocities—Luxemburg.

"CHAMPION of human honor!" begins Eden Philpotts' glorious sonnet to Belgium, and, in all that has been written and said of Belgium during the war, this is the key thought. Yet why this is true, why all the world has been stirred by the German aggression of Belgium, why it was one of the blackest crimes on the sooty pages of international piracy is a diplomatic question which demands careful statement.

There are two factors which determine the history of Belgium and her peculiar place in Europe and which entered actively into her relation to the world war. The first of these factors is external and strategical and depends upon her geographical position, the second is internal and racial.

The strategical importance of Belgium lies in the fact that the chain of mountains which bridges Europe in a south-easterly direction is broken only in Belgium. From the Mediterranean, northwestward, the Maritime Alps, the Swiss Alps, the Jura Mountains, the Vosges Mountains and the forested hills of the Ardennes create a military barrier. Belgium is largely a country of plains, a natural battleground and was long known—in the days of cock-fighting—as the "cockpit of Europe."

It was the scene of the constant strife between Spain and the Netherlands. At the battle of Ramillies, in 1706, the English, under Marborough defeated the armies of Louis XIV of France, "the great monarch." The French King was forced to sue for peace, but the English asked such humiliating terms that he refused and went on fighting, turning the tide. Peace was made by the Treaty of Utrecht.

A century later, Belgium was the scene of the close of Napoleon's

career, when, at the Battle of Waterloo, in 1815, the English and Prussians met the French in the fatal plains of Belgium and inflicted a decisive defeat. A dozen historic battlefields could be named, all of which have been the scenes of battle during the present war.

Belgium is of the highest strategical importance to France, for the frontier between the two countries is political, rather than geographical, and therefore difficult of defence. To England Belgium is of strategical importance for it has always been held that her naval supremacy would be imperilled if a great power held the port of Antwerp. To Germany, Belgium (and Holland) held out the tempting bait of a wide and rich seacoast instead of the small North Sea outlet she possessed before the war.

Birth of Modern Belgium.

It follows, therefore, that Belgium was coveted by Germany, by England and by France and that any two of these nations would be ready to combine against the third should that third undertake a war of conquest. When Germany invaded Belgium in 1914, England joined France, not because of any emotional sympathy for Belgium—chancelleries, like corporations, have no souls—but because a German Belgium would be an intolerable menace, laying the British Isles open to the risk of sudden invasion.

The second factor, as has been said, was internal and racial. Small as is Belgium, she is inhabited by two widely different races, the Flemings and Walloons. The Flemings are the direct descendants of the Germanic barbarians who swept southward at the collapse of the Ancient Roman Empire, and who found the people of the low plains of the north and west an easy prey. They remain there still, thoroughly Teutonic in blood, language and culture. They are more German, even, than the Dutch.

The Walloons, on the other hand, are Celtic in stock, greatly Latinized by French influence. They speak French, are possessed of the French spirit and Brussels "the little Paris" is as French as the great city upon the Seine.

The great Congress of Vienna, which dabbled with every kind of international juggling and had a finger in every pie, recreated the Kingdom of the Netherlands by joining Belgium to Holland, the reason of this action being the fear of French aggression which had been pro-

duced by the incessant victories of Napoleon. But this, like many similar devices arranged by compromise, could not endure; while the Walloons had been willing to go in partnership with the Flemings, they could not trot in harness with the Dutch.

Suddenly—as a matter of fact, incited by a patriotic song sung in an opera—the Belgians revolted, secured the aid of such of the Flemmings as were Roman Catholics and who had been harassed by the Protestantism of the Dutch, seized Brussels for themselves, erected barricades and drove out their rulers. On October 4, 1830, the Independence of Belgium was proclaimed and a Constitutional Government formed. This was the birth of Modern Belgium.

Belgium a Perpetually Neutral State.

The "Hunt for a King" became a famous diplomatic affair. In the briefest possible words it may be said that France insisted on a French king for Belgium, England was determined on the Prince of Orange. The National Council of Belgium tentatively offered the crown to the Duc de Nemours, son of the French Emperor Louis Philippe. Word was sent that the suggestion would be favorably received. A deputation set off for Paris to make the formal offer. Meantime, before the deputation arrived, the English Cabinet announced that it would declare war on France if the offer were accepted, thus following out the policy that no great power should control Belgium. Louis Philippe was compelled to decline the crown on behalf of his son, and England succeeded in forcing Belgium to offer the crown to Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, a famous German soldier, conditional on his marrying the daughter of Louis Philippe. Thus Germany, England and France could be considered as sharing the interests of the crown of Belgium.

With this, the great powers recognized the independence of Belgium, and at the same time determined that Belgium should be withdrawn from international wrangling by being made "a perpetually neutral state" at the same time pledging her "perpetual neutrality and also the integrity and inviolability of her territory." Prussia and Austria, be it noted, were among the signers of this treaty, the pledge also having been signed by England, France and Russia. This treaty was renewed, enlarged and reinforced in 1839, exact and particular stipulations being made and sworn that no foreign armies should be allowed to cross Belgium for any purpose. To enable Belgium to dis-

charge this duty she was allowed to maintain an army and to fortify certain strategic points, especially Liege, Namur and Antwerp.

In the Franco-Prussian War, England grew afraid that either one or other of the powers might seek to seize Belgium and by implied threats that she would espouse the refractory cause, she forced France and Prussia to sign compacts reaffirming "their settled determination to maintain the independence and neutrality of Belgium as established by the treaty of 1839." In 1875 Bismarck renewed the same assurances. In 1907, at the Hague, Germany re-endorsed the principle, and in 1911, after the Germans had built strategic railways ending in fields facing the Belgian frontier, Bethman-Hollweg, the German Chancellor, at the outset of the war answered a Belgian protest with the words "Germany has no intention of violating Belgian neutrality."

Germany Renounces Belgium's Neutrality.

German treachery, in this case, grows steadily blacker as the time of the war approaches. After urging Belgium to modernize her fortresses, Germany ordered Krupps not to send the guns that the Belgian government had ordered. German military books discussed the Belgian plains as the only line of attack on France. It became an open secret that Germany pooh-poohed the treaty of eighty years before, which was signed only by Prussia. Yet, in April, 1914, less than four months before the outbreak of war, Von Jagow, the German foreign minister, declared "Belgian neutrality is provided for by international conventions and Germany is determined to respect those conventions."

War broke out between Austria and Servia. On July 31, 1914, England officially questioned Paris and Berlin whether both powers would "engage to respect the neutrality of Belgium, so long as no other power violates it?" France answered honestly that she would do so. Germany evaded reply, the foreign minister declaring that he must consult the emperor and chancellor before giving an answer. Next day England put the issue directly before Germany. The German ambassador countered with the question whether, if Germany assured England regarding Belgium, would England engage to remain neutral?

On August 1, the German ambassador at Brussels stated to Belgium "you may perhaps see your neighbor's roof in flames, but your own house will not catch fire." The military attache of the German legation, on the same day, telephoned to the editor of a famous Brussels

newspaper, "You may deny in your largest type that Belgium has anything to dread." Yet, that very day, Germany invaded Luxemburg.

On Sunday, August 2, 1914, the German minister appeared at the Belgian foreign office with the official communique from Berlin in answer to Belgium's request for further assurances that Luxemburg's violation was not a forecast of what might happen to her. Belgium asked for an assurance, she received an ultimatum. The document stated that Germany had learned that French forces "intend to march through Belgium against Germany." This phrase constitutes what diplomats call an unsupported statement, and what Americans, generally, call an impudent and bare-faced lie.

The ultimatum was vicious in its terms. It demanded that Belgium allow the German armies to cross her soil, and that, in such event, Belgian independence would be restored after the war and payment given for damage done. If Belgium should refuse, the ultimatum read: "Germany will to her regret be compelled to consider Belgium as an enemy." Twelve hours were given for the answer. In twelve hours' time, no one, neither France nor England, could reach Belgium to give aid.

Belgium Staunch in Her Resistance.

To the end of time let it be told that not one voice was raised in the Belgian Royal Council in favor of submission. Flemings and Walloons alike refused dishonor. The council debated all night as to the best means of resistance and in the gray dawn threw down the gauntlet in the following words: "We refuse to believe that the independence of Belgium can only be preserved at the price of the violation of her neutrality. If this hope is disappointed, the Belgian government is firmly resolved to repel with all the means in its power, every attack upon its rights." At the same time King Albert sent a telegram asking the diplomatic aid of England, Belgian pride forbidding an appeal for military help.

This is still the morning of August 3. Sir Edward Grey, in the British House of Commons reviewed the whole Belgian situation. England's point of view may be judged from these, the official words of Britain's Foreign Minister: "If, in a crisis like this, we run away from those obligations of honor and interest as regards the Belgian treaty, I doubt whether, whatever material force we might have at

the end, it would be of very much value in face of the respect that we should have lost." England was ready to draw the sword.

On August 4, the next day, Bethmann-Hollweg, the German Chancellor, speaking before the Reichstag, made some startling statements. In his own words he admitted Germany's flagrant disregard of international rights. He said: "We are now in a state of necessity and necessity knows no law. Our troops have occupied Luxemburg and perhaps are already on Belgian soil. Gentlemen, that is contrary to the dictates of international law. The wrong—I speak openly—that we are committing, we will endeavor to make good as soon as our military goal has been reached."

England Ceases Relations With Germany.

Then came the "scrap of paper" incident. The British Ambassador at 7 o'clock in the evening of August 4 received his final message from London. He has since stated what his instructions were. In his own words: "I informed the secretary of state that unless the Imperial Government could give assurances by 12 o'clock that night that they would proceed no further with their violation of the Belgian frontier, I had been instructed to demand my passports, and to inform the Imperial Government that His Majesty's Government would have to take all steps in their power to uphold the neutrality of Belgium and the observance of a treaty to which Germany was as much a party as themselves." Von Jagow replied that reconsideration was impossible. The British Ambassador (Lord Goschen) then proceeded to call upon the German Chancellor to make a formal farewell.

Up to the very last minute Bethmann-Hollweg had believed that England would not fight. His spies had reported trouble in Ireland, incipient mutiny in India and a lukewarm spirit among a non-militaristic money-grubbing people. Giddy at the abyss into which Germany was falling, the chancellor lost his self-control and, during a twenty-minute harangue uttered the famous words: "Just for a word, Neutrality, a word which in war times has been so often disregarded; just for a scrap of paper, Great Britain is going to make war on a kindred nation! At what price would that compact have been kept! Has the British Government thought of that?"

Goschen replied that England had thought of it. If Germany wished to speak of "life and death interests" he desired to "point out

that it was a matter of life and death for the honor of Great Britain that she should keep her solemn engagement to do her uttermost to defend Belgium. That solemn compact simply had to be kept. Otherwise, what confidence could any one have with engagements with Great Britain in the future?" Bethmann-Hollweg raved in reply and the British ambassador, finding him "so excited, so overcome by the news of our action and so little disposed to hear reason that I (Goschen) refrained from adding fuel to the flame of further argument," turned on his heel and went away. The world war was begun.

Bestiality of the Germans.

No student of international politics will deny that Germany might defend the invasion of Belgium on the ground of military necessity but, certainly, no one will admit that Germany was justified for a single moment in the policy of "schrecklichheit" or frightfulness. The curious German psychology which gave birth to this horror will be dealt with in another chapter. Let it suffice here to say that this policy of "frightfulness" led to the Belgian atrocities, a page of unparalleled infamy, cruelty and bloody blame. Europe could not believe that any civilized people could be guilty of organized crimes which for ferocity outdid the Apaches and for coarseness outvied the dregs of the lowest slum. Yet national and international commissions of inquiry reported such atrocities that humanity stood aghast. It was officially proved that universal rape had been ordered, massacre had been made a matter of daily military routine, torture—unknown since the Dark Ages—had been resumed and deportations continued until the very last day of the war. The assassination of Edith Cavell, an English nurse, though it aroused the world, was but one of a hundred similar cases. The name of Germany became an offence to the nostrils of civilization.

And it failed. It all failed. Elsewhere in this book is told the siege of Liége and that extraordinary defiance of Fort Loncin and Fort Boncelles when the Belgians under General Leman held back Germany for ten days. Belgian gallantry saved the world from the trampling of the Hun. Moreover, by giving time for France to mobilize—which she did with extraordinary speed—by affording England the opportunity to ship an expeditionary force across the Channel, Belgium saved herself. She was never conquered. From Ypres to the sea there remained a strip of Belgium, free, even to the last. Her king fought in

the trenches with the soldiers. Her women and children died without a whimper. To be a Belgian was to be a hero. She had her reward—imperishable fame blazoned in gold on the book of the world's pride.

The Grand-Duchy of Luxemburg was included from 1815 to 1866 in the Germanic Confederation. By the Treaty of London, May 11, 1867, it was declared neutral territory and its integrity and independence assured. It has been held, at various times, by Burgundy, Spain, France, Austria, Holland and Belgium. At the opening of the Great War it was independent. The population is 260,000, Teutonic in origin and the language of the people is a German dialect. All the upper classes also speak French. It is a part of the German Zollverein or customs-union, yet the cultured aspect is French, or rather, Belgian.

When Luxemburg was invaded by the Germans on August 1, 1914, there was no chance of resistance. The Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide, hardly more than a girl (being but 20 years old), who drove her motor-car to the Adolf Bridge, on the frontier, and turned it crossways on the bridge and defied Germany, was taken prisoner and confined in her own palace.

Thus was this minature kingdom of peace gobbled by the maw of war. Yet Luxemburg maintained her spirit of independence and when the war was ended held out hands of welcome to the victorious Allies. "Prussians we will never be!" is the refrain of Luxemburg's patriotic song, and Prussians they shall never be, now that Prussianism has been ground into the dust.

CHAPTER XXX.

INDOMITABLE FRANCE AND ALSACE-LORRAINE.

Napoleon and the Map of Europe—Royalists and Republicans—Siege of Paris—War Indemnities and Alsace-Lorraine—Verdun and Frontier Fortifications—"They shall not pass!"—World Significance of Battle of the Marne—Genius of the War.

"THE Flame that is France!" Such was the world's verdict in the year 1918. "A light nation, much given to dancing," was the description of France that appeared in many American schoolbooks before the year 1914. The first has been derived from a knowledge of France and the French, the second was a part of that despicable propaganda whereby Germany tried to convince the world that she, and she only, was worthy of praise. It was Germany who hailed England as "a nation of shopkeepers," it was Germany who nicknamed America "The Land of the Almighty Dollar," it was Germany who coined the phrase "Barbaric Russia." The time has come for the world to give Germany her name, and it is simply "The Hun!"

France was for centuries the intellectual centre of Europe. Her court was her glory. Napoleon made France the military centre of Europe. Her armies were her glory. This war has made France the spiritual centre of Europe. Her people are her glory. The France of today, after the war, is courtly in her culture, Napoleonic in her military affairs, democratic in her government.

Because France is thus compounded, when the Third Republic was established in 1870, before the Siege of Paris in the Franco-Prussian War, it was called a "republic without republicans." From the American point of view, there is much that is true in the phrase to this very day. France has no parties, in the English and American parliamentary sense, she has factions based largely on personal leadership. In the forty years from 1875 to 1914 France had fifty cabinets or one every ten months. French politics was in a wretched state, the conservative class ignored it, the intellectual class despised it. Yet, no matter who may be in power, one thing continued, the sentiment that "France is always France." For this very reason, when any issue arises which threatens France herself it taps a loyalty, a patriotism, a fire of devotion such as no other country in the world can produce.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that the Republics of France and the United States are dissimilar. Many people forget this. It is not unusual to find Americans asserting that the Republican form of government is the panacea of all evils, meanwhile forgetting that there are as many different kinds of republics as there are forms of monarchy.

In an earlier chapter of this book, the Moroccan and Tunis questions were taken up with regard to the alliances of Europe. There is no need to enlarge, here, upon the colonies of France, save to mention that her African possessions alone comprise a territory larger than the United States, with a population of 32,000,000. When the war broke out Algeria sent troops of the highest military value overseas, while little Morocco, with an army as large as the United States Regulars, formed the most famous "storm troops" of the Allies. Nor should the Senegalese be forgotten, soldiers at whose appearance the Germans always immediately broke and ran.

Proofs of German Propaganda Before the War.

Although unknown to the world at large, April 2, 1913, was an important date in the yet unborn Great War. On that date the French minister of war handed to the Minister for Foreign Affairs, "an official secret report." This was the result of several years of secret service work by the French, for, while other nations were wasting money on Hague conventions and the like, France was spending money in finding out what Germany was doing. The money was well expended. This secret report produced the proofs of German propaganda in every country of the world, it gave the details of the "Holy War" plans of the Kaiser among the native populations of every French and English colony, it revealed the secret means of building up the German army, it suggested the certainty of the violation of Belgium and it uncovered the undermining of court influence in Russia by German intrigue. The immediate result of this report was the re-enactment by France of the law making three years, instead of two, the normal term in the army, and the stiffening of fortifications.

France thus knew, as all Europe knew, that the forces were shaping for war and she had, some years before, made an agreement with England, which, as it afterwards proved, saved the seas from spoliation and thereby saved the world from Germany. In 1907 and again on November 22, 1912, international agreements had been entered into

between England and France whereby France should keep her main fleet in the Mediterranean, thus enabling England to retire all her ships therefrom except a small squadron, while France withdrew her fleet from the English Channel and the Bay of Biscay. United naval action was thus made possible at any time.

Though war was pending several days, the actual break-out through Luxemburg and Belgium was sudden, so sudden that France did not have time to move part of her fleet to protect the northern coast. Moreover, if she had tried to do so, she would not only have left her Mediterranean and African possessions open to attack by the Austrian Navy, but she would also have weakened England's hand in the protection of Malta, Cyprus and the Suez. Accordingly, on August 2, 1914, England's Foreign Minister, in response to diplomatic questions, officially assured the French Ambassador of Britain's support in the following words: "I am authorized to give an assurance that if the German fleet comes into the Channel or through the North Sea to undertake hostile operations against the French coasts or shipping, the British fleet will give all the protection in its power." As a matter of fact, at the time of speaking, all of England's home fleets were in the North Sea, ready. Without a blow struck, the war at sea was won. Germany dared not face the issue. So little did she dare, that, at the end of the war, she sheepishly and shamefully turned over to the Allies a complete navy that had never had the nerve to fight.

Great Drive on Paris.

That same day, Sunday, August 2, 1914, German troops crossed the French frontier at three different points. Germany's official excuse for declaring war on France was, in the terms of the German Ambassador's final paper, that "French aviators have violated the neutrality of Belgium by flying over the territory of that nation." A further charge was made that aviators had dropped bombs in German territory (which was not true) and that was all.

The war began with the great drive on Paris. Elsewhere in this book has been told the story of that fighting retreat and of the "Thus far, and no farther!" of the Battle of the Marne. There, too, has it been told how the "Ragged Legion" saved Paris, and the famous mobilization of an army in busses and taxicabs. Paris was seriously threatened and on September 3, 1914, the capital of France was removed

to Bordeaux (returning December 11, 1914). The government left Paris but the spirit of France did not, and the Kaiser's soup, awaiting him in the Paris hotel where he ordered dinner, had grown cold with four years of waiting.

The position of France in the War is extraordinarily simple. She was attacked, absolutely without any cause, her territory was invaded, her towns and villages burned and pillaged, her women mistreated, her children slain. There was no bestiality conceivable by the minds of brutal men that was not wreaked upon her, all for no cause. France defended herself. Therein, to the eyes of Germany, lay her fault; she defended herself so well that the Teuton could not break the line; there, to Germany, was her crime. The Hun defaced, deflowered and despoiled the land, but he could not scratch the soul. France said "They shall not pass!" and they did not pass.

Verdun and Battle of the Marne.

Verdun, however, stands out so strikingly in this war, that its significance needs presentment. From the strategical point of view, it is the northern angle of the chain of Franco-German fortresses. It is also the eastern angle of the natural Marne-Aisne line from Paris to Germany. It is the key angle. If this angle breaks, an enemy army can pour through to the plains of France. It cost France 300,000 men to hold it, but it cost Germany 500,000 men to fail. It cost far more than this, moreover, it cost Germany her army's belief in its invulnerability. The supposed irresistible force had met the immovable object and Verdun stood while Germany fell.

Yet—and this is the irony of Fate—had Germany done the less dishonorable thing and dared to attack France directly, had she struck at Verdun on the first day of the war, she would have won. The siege guns that reduced Liége and Namur would have smashed the fortifications of Verdun to powder. When at last she reached Verdun by her shameful circuitous path through a neutral country, the French artillerists had learned their lesson, the great guns of Verdun were moved from the forts and placed on railways, never firing twice from the same spot and the great siege guns were worth exactly nothing at all in that great two years' battle. Cowardice begot defeat.

Like Verdun, the Battle of the Marne, September 9, 1914, has a world significance. It was the decisive battle of the war. Germany

believed that success lay in the first dash. She staked everything on that. Her attack was the result of forty years of preparation. Each day meant the weakening of her initial impetus, each day the strengthening of the Allies. It was an all-French victory, for the English were not in contact with the enemy. Nor far from the birthplace of Joan of Arc the soldiers of Joffre and Foch turned the day. It was the poilu who determined the world's future. The war lasted four years longer, and many a time did the German menace loom great and near, but the back of Kaiserism was broken at the Battle of the Marne.

While France's relation to the war is excessively simple—indeed, the simplest of all nations engaged in the strife, it is complicated by the question of Alsace-Lorraine, a very tough nut to crack. This is a subject on which there are distinctly two sides.

Concerning Alsace and Lorraine.

To begin with, Alsace and Lorraine are two questions, not one. Like the Flemings and Walloons, in Belgium, the former occupying the plains and the latter the hills, so Alsace, a flood plain stretching along the valley of the Rhine, was overrun by the Germanic hordes, and is Teuton in blood and speech. The broken hill country of Lorraine acted as a check to the Teutonic tide, and the western part remained French in language and Latinized Celt in blood. In Alsace-Lorraine, taken as a whole, the German element is far the strongest. The official census (German) in 1910 showed a population of 1,634,000 speaking German and 204,000 speaking French.

In the Middle Ages, both Alsace and Lorraine were loose parts of the so-called Holy Roman Empire, mainly Germanic. The Duchy of Lorraine, however, soon became French in character, with Nancy as its capital, a city distinctly French. France annexed Metz, Toul and Verdun in 1552, and the Duchy of Lorraine was formally annexed, at its own request, in 1766. Alsace, meantime, had become a French province as a result of the Thirty Years' War, and the French Revolution cemented to France the few districts that were still semi-independent. From 1789 to 1870 Alsace-Lorraine grew steadily more and more French, though in the Rhine Valley, the interests were mainly German.

At the close of the Franco-Prussian War, by the Treaty of Frankfort, both provinces were demanded by Germany, even the French speaking section of Western Lorraine being taken, because of the

military value of the great fortress of Metz. Over 50,000 of the French-speaking Lorrainers emigrated to France, and this movement has continued ever since.

For her part, Germany has conducted an arbitrary Germanization of the two provinces. In 1874, the use of French in the Provincial Assembly was forbidden and the municipal councils of Strassburg, Metz and Colmas had to be suspended for insubordination to German authority. In 1884, by an imperial law, the use of the French language, generally, was prohibited. In 1889, French was disallowed even by witnesses in a court of law. In 1900 the German civil code was introduced. Throughout this entire time, any person showing Francophile tendencies was apt to find himself in conflict with the authorities, new corporations destined to do business found that only German capital would be considered, all exploitation of natural resources was in German hands. Over forty years of this system drove out most of the French-thinking people and filled their places with Germans.

France Entitled to Alsace-Lorraine.

From the historic point of view, France has a better claim to Alsace-Lorraine than Germany. From the racial and linguistic point of view, Germany's claim is the stronger. From the point of view of justice for an unrighteous spoliation in 1871, France considers the lost provinces an integral part of her empire; from the economic point of view, the provinces are German. Strategically, Alsace-Lorraine in French hands would mean a wedge driven into the frontier of Germany; politically, it would give Germany an admirable basis for constant spy work and internal political dissensions in France.

There is yet a still further difficulty in relation to Alsace-Lorraine which it is well to state, because what appear to be slight differences often become national issues. It has been said that Alsace-Lorraine has been Germanized. This is true. But it has not been Prussianized. The Alsatians have a gift of humor. Such a spirit is fatal to Prussianism. The story of the Detwiller Rooster is a historic incident.

In 1895, a peasant who lived in the little village of Detwiller, near Zabern, possessed a fine white rooster with a handsome red crest. Being French in sympathy, he dyed the rooster's tail blue, thus disporting in his barnyard the tricolor of France. The Kaiser's police protested. The peasant replied that the feathers had grown blue. Grave chemists examined the rooster's tail and pronounced the color

to be dye. The police ordered the peasant to slay the fowl. He refused. So military orders were sent that the fowl should be sabred, which was done. But the howls of delight which echoed and re-echoed over Alsace-Lorraine and France about the Detwiller Rooster seriously lamed the dignified strut of the Prussian occupation.

It was in this same district, in the little city of Zabern, moreover, that occurred the famous and grave Zabern incident. A certain Baron von Forstner, a Junker lieutenant of the Ninety-first Prussian Infantry, stationed at Zabern, incurred the hatred of the people. The street boys called him names in the streets. Von Forstner, in retaliation, promised a ten-mark piece to any one of his men who should kill a Social Democrat civilian. The town grew restive. Whereupon the colonel of the garrison commanded the local magistrate to disperse a crowd. The magistrate refused. Whereupon the military charged and arrested fifteen civilians, including three judges and the state prosecuting attorney. A storm of protest followed. The Governor-General of Alsace threatened to resign, and the Kaiser was compelled to send a sharp order censuring the military authorities.

Antipathy of Alsace-Lorraine Towards Prussia.

Von Forstner, however, was furious at the censure. He was removed to a small garrison town, near by, and there a lame shoemaker, a cripple, presuming on his physical weakness, made a caustic remark to a friend about Von Forstner, as the latter passed him on the street. The lieutenant drew his sword and slashed and wounded the cripple. There was an uproar. Von Forstner was tried by court-martial, declared guilty, he took an appeal and was promptly acquitted. Even the Reichstag felt that this was too much and passed a vote of censure on the government, by a vote of 393 to 54. The Zabern incident, however, crystallizing the growing estrangement between Alsace-Lorraine and Prussia.

During the war, moreover, Germany's high-handed proceedings, the atrocities, the spoliation and disregard for human rights definitely turned the people of Alsace-Lorraine against their German kin, even as it has disgusted the German Swiss, whom the Alsatians greatly resemble. There are currents and cross-currents pulling in every direction in the two provinces. Alsace-Lorraine is a smouldering ember only too likely to fan another war at some time in the future.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ITALY REDEEMED AND UNREDEEMED.

The Great Spiritual Drama—Garibaldi—Quirinal and Vatican—The "Unholy Alliance"—Meaning of "Italia Irredenta"—Adriatic Sea as the Key to the Mediterranean—The Red Week—The War Plunge—Forged Propaganda and the Piavé.

ITALY'S relation to the war is a tangled skein. An ally of Germany and Austria before the war, at the opening of the war she remained neutral and within a year became an ally of France and England. This change of attitude, which was of vital importance to the Allies of the world war, centers largely around the difficult question of "Italia Irredenta" or the unredeemed provinces of Italy.

Modern Italy is a product of the Nineteenth Century. Before Napoleon conquered Italy, in 1805, the peninsula and the northern mainland was a confusion of small states and meaningless boundaries. Napoleon created a new Kingdom of Italy in the north, taking the crown himself. He swept away a host of Austrian princelets. He played pitch and toss with Italian ideals, and set up a Kingdom of Naples whereof first, his brother, and later, Murat, was the king. He propped up the Pope on his temporal throne and then toppled him over and took him prisoner. When Napoleon fell, and at the Congress of Vienna, Metternich summed up the Italian situation in a historic phrase, "Italy is only a geographical expression." Pope Pius VII summarized the same situation at the same time when he said to the Doge of Venice, "nothing remains in Italy but my tiara and your ducal hat."

Outwardly, both these sayings were true; inwardly, both were false. Napoleon had found fifteen Kingdoms in Italy, he left but three. The Italians had learned the value of unity. Moreover, while the Austrian princelets had been reactionary, the French influence, new-born since the great Revolution of 1879, was progressive. Italy had learned the value of freedom of thought. When Austria sought to dominate Italy, the secret society of the Carbonari was formed, reaching a membership of hundreds of thousands and including the most intellectual men of Italy. In Naples and in Piedmont, Austrian soldiers were

sent to search the houses, to arrest people without warrant, to imprison leaders without trial and to murder Carbonari agents without redress. This was the beginning of forty years of Austrian terrorism in Italy.

A word must be said as to the "Holy Alliance," now better known to history as the "Unholy Alliance." This was a paper drawn up in 1815 by the then Czar of Russia while under the religious (?) influence of the notorious Baroness de Krudener. It was, to all intents and purposes, a "League of Nations" declaring that "The three contracting Monarchs, conformably to the words of the Holy Scriptures, which command all men to consider each other as brethren, will remain united by the bonds of a true and indisoluble fraternity, and, considering each other as fellow countrymen, they will, on all occasions and in all places, lend each other aid and assistance." Metternich's comment on this mystic document was brief and to the point. "Sign it," he said to his imperial master, "it means nothing and may be useful." It became Austria's club over Italy's head.

Formation of a New Italy.

Italy, however, had seen in the sky the hope of a free and united nation. For this Mazzini conspired, Garibaldi fought and Cavour negotiated. In 1848 King Charles Albert of Piedmont granted a liberal constitution to his people. Austria sent an army to enforce tyranny and defeated the Piedmontese, Charles Albert resigning his throne rather than accept the peace terms. The result was an Austrian repression which Gladstone characterized as "an outrage upon civilization, upon humanity and upon decency." Charles Albert's son, King Victor Emmanuel II, however, with Cavour at his side, commenced to plot anew. He joined in the Crimean War, he won the help of France and forced war on Austria, defeating the ancient foe at Solferino in 1859, with the aid of French troops.

Briefly to summarize the terms of the peace treaty, Venetia remained Austrian territory, but Lombardy was ceded to Napoleon III and by him ceded to Piedmont. The way was prepared for the union with other northern Italian states. Meantime, Garibaldi and the "two thousand" brought Southern Italy and Sicily, known as "The Two Sicilies," into the same frame of thought. Thus, in 1860, Parma, Modena, Romagna, Tuscany, Umbria, the Marches and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies accepted the liberal constitution of Piedmont and ac-

cepted Victor Emmanuel as their king. The first Italian parliament, which is the beginning of the Italy of today, convened at Turin in 1861.

It is necessary, now, to touch on the religious question, which, in Italy, is not a question of religion at all. It is a matter of territory and centers around the temporal or territorial possessions of the Pope. The Papal States—be it said without criticism—were the worst governed provinces west of Constantinople. In 1831 Pope Gregory XVI refused to allow a railway or a telegraph line to be built in the states over which he ruled, classical Latin was the only tongue taught in the schools, less than two per cent. of the people were literate, trial by justice was rare and deemed unnecessary, the press was muzzled and the police were used to force every man, woman and child into the confessional. In 1847 Pope Gregory died and his successor, Pius IX, proved himself a true leader. He was not only a deeply spiritual prelate, but a true administrator and a man of broad view. He commenced to abolish the principal evils in the Papal States but was compelled to hold his hand for the reason that the people were not sufficiently advanced to make good use of their liberties. The Papal States were not Piedmont.

The Quirinal and Pope Pius IX.

The unification of Italy in 1859-1861 deprived Pope Pius IX, or rather, the Papacy, of all its territorial powers except Rome and its immediate surroundings. Pope Pius protested, but all that he could do was to retain Rome, and this, only, with the aid of French bayonets. When France was compelled to withdraw her troops in 1870 to help in the Franco-Prussian War, the Italian armies breached the walls of Rome in 1871 and entered in triumph. By an overwhelming vote, the people of Rome supported the monarchy in this case.

In May, 1871, the Italian Government—known in diplomatic parlance as the Quirinal—passed the Law of Papal Guarantees. This gave the Pope $600,000 income annually from state revenues, entire control of the Vatican and Lateran palaces and grounds (which are large), the person of the Pope was declared sacred and inviolable, and his rights were set forth as those of a sovereign. Pope Pius IX refused to accept the money, declared that the spiritual ruler of the world could not accept conditions from a temporal king and immured himself and his successors in perpetual imprisonment in the Vatican. Italy has ever

since felt that the Vatican was unwilling to accept fair terms and bitterness has always existed. It broke out twice, during the Great War.

In a former chapter, dealing with Alliances, one of the international causes for Italy's resentment against France was found in the case of the establishment of a French protectorate over Tunis. There were, however, even deeper reasons which forced Italy to become an ally of her hereditary foe, Austria. These are entangled with the Quirinal-Vatican problem.

It has been said that Pope Pius IX was confirmed in his holding of Rome by French bayonets. This meant that France and the Papacy together prevented the Italians from making Rome the capital. "Rome or Death" was Garibaldi's cry, but the French defeated the Italian troops at Mentana in 1867. This defeat rankled. When, in 1870, the French troops were withdrawn and Victor Emmanuel seized Rome in 1871, it was evident that France had not withdrawn willingly. Moreover, French pilgrims to Rome, during the next thirty years, constantly irritated the Quirinal by references to the Pope-King, and the clerical party in France made no secret of its alliance with the Papacy. The creation of the Triple Alliance resulted. In 1887 Italy adopted a protective tariff and in 1888 the commercial treaty with France was broken. Not until 1898 were commercial relations restored. Finally, the separation of church and state in France in 1905 marked the collapse of clericalism and intimated to Italy that never again would armed France seek to restore to the Pope the territories held by Italy.

The Italia Irredenta.

With these interlocking complications made clear, the ground is prepared for an understanding of the problem of "Italia Irredenta." This is not one problem but three, dealing with three areas geographically separated from each other and only partly populated by Italian-speaking peoples. These areas are Trentino, Kustenland and Dalmatia. Half of Trentino is Italian, half Austrian; one-third of Kustenland is Italian, one-third Austrian, and one-third Jugo-Slav; only the coastline of Dalmatia is Italian, the rest is Jugo-Slav.

Consider, first, the geographical character of these three areas, for geography often determines ethnic and political conditions. The Alps may be regarded as a great arch rising from the French Riviera to the south-western corner of Switzerland, curving around that border

and approaching the Mediterranean again at the head of the Adriatic Sea, back of Trieste. This arch, however, is in two spans, for the great mountain range sends down a triangular spur into Italy, reaching almost as far south as Verona. This mountainous triangle is the Southern Tryol, and the section north of the Brenner Pass is Austrian, while the section south of that pass, is Italian. It is this latter section which is known as the Trentino.

Kustenland, including Istria and Izonzo, is a peninsula jutting into the Adriatic just east of the Italian frontier. It is a wild country, with steep mountain slopes rising directly out of the sea. It is of the highest strategical importance. Just as the Brenner Pass would be invaluable to Italy as a defence, so the port of Trieste, in Kustenland, is the natural outlet to the Adriatic. Pola, the great naval base of Austria, is at the tip of the peninsula, and Fiume, the Hungarian port, is at the point where the peninsula joins the mainland to the south. Although Trieste is an Austrian port, in 1900 (the latest census) seventy-four per cent. of the population was Italian.

Italy's Claims and Aspirations.

Dalmatia, if the islands be considered, joins Kustenland, and runs down one-half the length of the Adriatic. It consists of a fringe of rocky islands and the steeps of a rugged mountain wall. It is absolutely cut off from the back country by this mountain barrier, though modern railways—with difficult engineering—begin to link the Balkan interior with the sea. Roughly, the islands are Italian, the mainland Slav.

Italy's claim to the "unredeemed" provinces is historically weak, so far as modern history is concerned. It is geographically strong. Culturally considered, Italy is strong in the Trentino, fairly strong in Istria, less so in Izonzo and weak in Dalmatia.

Desparate and confused as are these claims, they are rendered tenfold more bewildering by the fact that, at the outbreak of the war, Servia was against Austria and with France. But Servia, at the same time, was an ardent advocate of "Greater Servia" which laid emphasis on the Slavic note and which pointed out that Izonzo and Istria were mainly Slavic and Dalmatia entirely so. Italy's interests, therefore, were as definitely anti-Servian as they were anti-Austrian. She was not on either side of the fence.

If this were not enough, Italy frankly admitted her intention to be master of the Mediterranean, a goal equally frankly annulled by the two great naval powers, England and France. Ferrero, the greatest of modern historians, an ardent Italian patriot, pointed out that the Adriatic was "a Roman and Venetian lake," and declared that "unless we conquer Istria, every memory of Italy will fade from those lands which, from the days of Augustus Caesar, have been Latin. It would be like unmaking the history of Italy."

Italy Enters the War.

Meantime, German capital was developing Italian resources, the great Italian Commercial Bank at Milan was a German institution, and the powerful German propaganda found soil in business circles. This tended to make Italy pro-German. Yet she could never defend her strung-out line of coast against the three-power navy of England aided by the two-power navy of France, nor could she hope for favorable partition of "Italia Irredenta" as Austria's ally. This threw her into the arms of the Allies. From every point of view, Italy was in a tight box when Austria and Germany forced the world war on Servia and France respectively.

The war had raged for nine months when at last Italy decided to throw in her fate with the Allies. The Battle of the Marne had been won, showing the strength of France; the German Navy had been sewed into its sack, showing the power of England. But, on the other hand, Russia was seen to be a negligible factor, showing the strength of Germany; the Balkans were overrun, showing the strength of Austria. From the Italian point of self-interest there was little to choose.

Here, then, were three powerful parties in Italy, pro-ally, neutral and pro-German. But Germany did not want Italy to join the war; it meant naval and territorial complications. She wanted Italy to stay neutral, and, for a while, Italy did so. But Salandra, for the government, made a secret pact with the Allies concerning "Italia Irredenta." Then Giolitti "The Italian Clemenceau" dashed into the arena with the announcement that the Central Powers would make equally good terms. Civil war boded. At this juncture the great writer Gabriele d'Annunzio burst into perfervid oratory and inflamed Italy to war. On May 12, 1915 (nineteen days after Salandra's secret pact) he said in a famous speech at Rome: "Since three days, I do not

know what odor of treason begins to suffocate us. No, no! We will not be a museum, a hotel, a winter resort, a horizon painted in Prussian blue for international honeymoons! Sweep away, sweep away all this filth! Cast into the sewers all putrified things! Long live Rome without shame! Long live a great and pure Italy!"

Italy's final moves toward war were swift. On April 25, 1915, the Salandra government formed the pact with the Allies, on May 3 the government announced its denunciation of the Triple Alliance, on May 9 the Syndicalists threatened a repetition of the anarchy of the Red Week (June, 1914) if war were proclaimed, on May 13 the Salandra ministry resigned to force the issue, on May 15 the pro-German socialists established a nation-wide threat of civil war, on May 16 the King invited Salandra to resume office, thus declaring himself in favor of war, on May 17 Giolitti left Rome, his life in danger, on May 23 Italy formally declared war against Austria-Hungary.

Emperor Franz Josef Perturbed.

The feeling of the Central Powers on the subject was expressed in Emperor Franz Josef's address to his troops on May 24. He said: "The King of Italy has declared war on me. Perfidy, whose like history does not know, has been committed by the Kingdom of Italy against both its allies. After an alliance of more than thirty years' duration, during which it was able to increase its territorial possessions and develop itself to a flourishing condition hitherto unthought of, Italy abandoned us in our hour of danger and went over with flying colors into the camp of our enemies. We did not menace Italy; did not curtail her authority; did not attack her honor or her interests. We always responded loyally to the duties of our alliance and afforded her our protection when she took the field."

The next day Italy answered this with a long official justification of her action to the effect that "the Triple Alliance was essentially defensive and designed solely to preserve the equilibrium of Europe. . . . Austria-Hungary severed the treaty with her own hands. She rejected the response of Servia, which gave her all the satisfaction she could legitimately claim. She refused to listen to the conciliatory proposals presented by Italy in conjunction with the other powers in the effort to spare Europe from a vast conflict certain to drench the Continent with blood and to reduce it to ruin beyond the conception of human imagination, and, finally, she provoked that conflict."

In that part of this book which deals with the military events of the war, the sudden invasion of Italy by Austria, after a long mountain campaign wherein Italy was the victor, has been told. The collapse of Italy, however, had little to do with her armies. It was caused, primarily, by a treacherous deal between German propagandists and Italian socialists, and one of the many means taken was the printing of forged newspapers with dates emanating from various Italian cities, the forgeries an exact replica in type of the papers themselves, showing that Civil War was raging in Italy (which it was not) and declaring that the government was preparing to sell itself to the Central Powers (which was absolutely without foundation in fact). At the same time, by cleverly working the pro-German commercial interests, the Teuton propagandists were successful in hampering the forwarding of provisions to the army, thus giving color to their schemes and sowing discontent among the troops.

German Lies Refuted.

The blow struck directly at the morale of the army, for the Italians themselves knew well that there were powerful pro-neutral and pro-German parties, as had been evinced by the countless strikes engineered by the "Reds." At this moment of weakness, Austria and Germany together, having massed troops and munitions in advance, struck and struck heavily. The defense became a retreat, the retreat degenerated into a rout.

No sooner, however, was the line broken than the news that these papers had been forgeries began to creep through the army, the propaganda was stamped as a fabric of atrocious lies and the treachery was uncovered. There was a swift reversal of sentiment. The Italians, gallant enough before, now performed prodigies of valor, and without a campaign plan, without adequate defence, having lost vast quantities of artillery and munitions in their hasty flight, they took their stand on the River Piave. The Germans were within sight of Venice, but between them and that goal stood, in serried ranks, the high-hearted courage of Italy. The Piave was as the Marne, they "did not pass." Germany might still seek her place in the sun, but across the entrance to the Italian plains was written in blood the words "No Thoroughfare!"

CHAPTER XXXII.

SERBIA AND THE JUGO-SLAVS.

Buffer States—Divisions of the Southern Slavs—Incessant Wars With Turkey—Bosnia the Fuse of the World-Explosion—The Three Historic Assassinations—Serajevo the Match to the Fuse—Allies' Inability to Prevent Balkan Disaster.

HE who would tread the maze of the Balkans must avoid minor issues, he must endeavor to carve for himself broad roads and lay down for himself broad principles. In endeavoring to lead the reader along such lines, a definite policy is here adopted of bracketing that feature of the Balkan muddle with the country to which it is most closely allied. Thus the Bosnian problem is attached to Serbia, the Dalmatian problem to Italy, the Macedonian problem to Bulgaria, the Albanian problem to Greece and the Bassarabian problem to Roumania.

Following out this plan, Serbia is taken as the nucleus of the Southern Slav or Jugo-Slav interests. Jugo-Slavia is an ethnic division, embracing Serbia, Old Serbia, Novi-Bazar, Serbian Macedonia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro, Croatia-Slavonia, Dalmatia, Temesvar, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola and Kustenland. Its area is 104,000 square miles, approximately, or more than three times as large as Holland, Belgium and Denmark put together. The population is at least 15,000,000, with over 11,000,000 of this population Jugo-Slav. In other words, the Jugo-Slav group is about the same in number as the Scandinavian, including the entire populations of Norway, Sweden and Denmark. It is, therefore, with a possible first-class power that this chapter deals.

Of all the many astonishing factors which enter into Serbian history, certainly the most remarkable is the fact that for five centuries Serbia maintained her identity in spite of Byzantine, Turkish and Austrian domination. She possessed a strong literary tradition and a deep-rooted patriotism. She was ever and always a victim of Turkish greed, cruelty and misgovernment, and when, in 1804, these grew insupportable, she took to arms. The peace of Bucharest in 1812 pro-

vided Serbia with a measure of autonomy, but the old fortresses, Belgrade included, remained in Turkish hands.

The revolt of Milosh, in 1815, led to liberation and the formation (under Turkish permission) of a liberal constitution in 1817. Black George, the hero of Serbia, was assassinated with the approval of both Milosh and the Turks. The next fifty years is a history of strife and unrest between the Serbians and the Turks, conditions which Austria did her most to foment, with the result that when the last Turkish troops were driven from Serbia in 1867, Austria had a solid hold on Serbia. The split between the two parties of Serbia continued unabated, however, and, consequently, King Michael was assassinated by followers of the Black George dynasty.

King Alexander Assassinated.

Matters went on from bad to worse. Austrian and Russian intrigue undermined what had been a sincere patriotism, even though a bloodily partisan one, and secret agents from Russia and Vienna continuously fed the flames of hate. On June 10, 1903, a revolution and sudden overthrow of the government was secured by the radicals, marked by one of the most horrible royal murders in history. King Alexander and Queen Draga—whom the people hated because they felt that the throne had been disgraced by the King's choice of a notoriously lewd woman of the baser sort—were murdered in their sleep, and the woman's body, stripped of all clothing, was thrown from a window of the palace onto a strip of lawn bordering the main street. There it remained for hours while the crowds gathered round and sang ribald songs about the dead. This scandalous, shocking and unclean crime estranged Serbia from every nation of Europe and the doors of every court were closed to the incoming King.

The annexation of Bosnia-Herzegovina by Austria in 1908, as has been shown in a foregoing chapter, almost brought about a world war. It would have done so, without question, if Europe had been ready and if Serbia had not been so malodorous in diplomacy. As it was, the Bosnian compromise proved a matter of tricky adjustment. Turkey was compensated with the cession of Novi-Bazar, which drove a wedge between Serbia and Montenegro. Russia stopped the outbreak of a Turco-Bulgarian war. Serbia got nothing.

Truth compels the admission that the Serbians of Bosnia were plot-

ting against Austria. It would, perhaps, be even more true to admit that Serbia was always plotting for a "Greater Serbia." In 1909 occurred the famous Friedjung trial (and its antecedent treason complications) in which some evidence was brought that bombs were being prepared for use against Austrian authorities. There was no evidence that the Serbian government was aware of this. This is plenty of evidence, however, that the Serbian government viewed favorably "a disruptive propaganda in Austrian domains," to quote the official words of the Austro-Hungarian Red Book.

However justifiable may have been the diplomatic moves which led to an alliance of Serbia, Montenegro, Bulgaria and Greece against Turkey, the alliance was absurd from an ethnical viewpoint. It did, however, do one thing, it made the powers realize that Serbia was the dominating factor of the Jugo-Slav interests. Moreover, it did something still more important, it rehabilitated Serbia in the eyes of the world.

The Jugo-Slav Situation.

The period between 1908, when Bosnia was annexed, and 1912, when the Balkan Wars began, had given rise to a curious change of aspect in the "Greater Serbia" question. Instead of spreading the doctrine that all Jugo-Slav countries were to be made Serbian, the general feeling grew that Jugo-Slavia should become an entity in herself.

The more this angle of the subject was studied, the more value was it found to have. From the English and French point of view, it kept Italy from possessing both sides of the Adriatic. From the Italian point of view, it stopped Austrian aggression. From the Greek point of view, it placed an ally instead of an enemy on her northern frontier. From the Austrian point of view, however, it was a menace perpetually on her border. From the German point of view, it spelt ruin to the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway project. Thus, while Serbia concept of a Jugo-Slav state did. If the reader will bear this in mind, never reached the point of being a valuable asset to the Allies, the it will throw additional light on the manner in which the crime of Serajevo plunged the world into war, as partly explained in an early chapter.

The Serajevo affair, as the fuse which ignited the bomb of the

world war, deserves a little attention. Serajevo, the capital of Bosnia, is a picturesque semi-oriental city, dotted with mosques—many Bosnian Serbs are Mohammedans—with a population of 38,000, mainly Serbs, in spite of the Austrian government's attempts to induce Austrian settlement since its annexation of the territory. It is a strong Jugo-Slav center.

On June 28, 1914, Archduke Ferdinand, Crown Prince of Austria, and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenburg (who was not of royal blood, and who had been denied the rank of "Imperial Highness" by the old emperor) came to Serajevo to make a state visit to the Bosnian capital. As Austrians they were disliked; personally, they were hated. Nor was the Crown Prince better loved in Vienna or in Buda-Pesth. He was known to foster a scheme for raising the Slavs to federalized equality with the Germans and the Magyars. This was a subject of irritation to all three races.

Some clue to the situation may be gained from the Archduke's last words: "The fellow," he gasped, "will get the Golden Cross of Merit for this." As the Golden Cross is an Austrian Order, it is clear that the Archduke regarded the attack as being fomented from Vienna. One thing at least is clear, that neither in Berlin, Vienna, Buda-Pesth or Belgrade was there any great sorrow over the assassination.

Why Was Archduke Ferdinand Murdered?

There is already a whole literature of the Serajevo incident. The main points will be here condensed. There is the accusation that the assassination was managed from Belgrade, because the Serbians feared that the Crown Prince's visit might lead to a Bosnian acceptation of Austrian control, which would kill the "Greater Serbia" idea. There was the accusation that Buda-Pesth had sought the death of the Archduke, because his policies would break down the autocratic rule of the Magyar nobles. There was the accusation that Vienna was favorable to the plot because the German element in Austria resented being reduced to an equality with the Magyars and Slavs, and, finally, there was the accusation that the whole affair was engineered by Berlin, which wanted some sort of an excuse for plunging Europe into war.

Which of these is true will never be known. Such matters are not put on paper. It is the writer's opinion that the spirit of the murder was born in the "Greater Serbia" organization, for the Serbians have

always chosen assassination as their weapon; that Austria sent the Crown Prince to Bosnia, disregardful of the risk, in order to raise some issue that could be turned to Bosnia's disadvantage; and that Berlin, secretly, provoked Serbo-Bosnian feeling to the extent of the direct act.

It is highly important to remember that this crime occurred on June 28, 1914. Until July 20—a curiously long time—there was no hint from Vienna that she was about to apply a match to the powder magazine of Europe. On the contrary, semi-inspired articles in the Austrian papers were moderate in tone and conciliatory. On July 20 came a mild hint. The German Ambassador to England, in reply to a question from Sir Edward Grey, replied that he had no news from Vienna on the Serbian question, "but Austria was certainly going to take some step."

Germany's Weak Excuse.

On July 23, 1914, from a sky in which all the clouds seemed to have rolled away, the thunderbolt was launched. Austria, with the almost certain connivance of Germany, delivered an ultimatum to Serbia which was in the highest degree arrogant, domineering, bellicose and unjustifiable.

It will be observed that the writer has said in the above paragraph "with the almost certain connivance of Germany." As this is the point on which hinges the huge controversy as to whether or no Germany started the war, it is necessary to give at least one document on each side. The German government asserted in the mouth of the German Ambassador at St. Petersburg: "The Imperial German Government had no knowledge of the text of the Austrian note before it was handed in and has not exercised any influence on its contents." Why, then, the delay of almost a month, if not to settle and arrange the issues between Vienna and Berlin?

Moreover, again in Germany's words, on the very same day, indeed, almost at the same hour that the ultimatum to Belgrade was forwarded, the Chancellor of the German Empire instructed the ambassadors assigned to Paris, London and St. Petersburg to state that "the acts as well as the demands of the Austro-Hungarian government, cannot but be looked on as justified." How could Germany indorse these demands if she did not know what they were?

The reader is asked to observe that no controversial literature has been used in the above paragraph, the first statement is an official one made by the German Ambassador, the second is an official statement in the German "White Paper."

What was Austria's intolerable ultimatum? What was the note which ended an era in the world's history? What were these phrases of dynamite?

Briefly, the note attacked Serbia for the Pan-Serbian propaganda, demanded a repudiation of the project in the official journal, ordered the dissolution of the "Greater Serbia" society (the Narodna Odbrana), compelled the dismissal from Serbian public service of all Pan-Serbic officials without regard to Serbia's admission of their guilt, forbade the smuggling of arms into Bosnia and, especially, ordered Serbia to accept in Serbia the trials of Serbians by Austrian officials. As William Stearns Davis puts it: "The most deadly sting of this scorpion was in its tail." This was the phrase: "The Austrian government expects the reply of the royal (Serbian) government at the latest by 6 o'clock on Saturday evening, the 25th of July."

The Meaning of Austria's Ultimatum.

There are two main issues here. The first is that if Serbia assented to Austria's demands that Austrian officials should enter Serbia to judge Serbian subjects, such action would in itself constitute a relinquishment of independence. It would end, at one stroke, Serbian liberty. The second was that forty-eight hours' notice was a time far too brief to allow the Powers to intervene toward a peaceful settlement of the question. Put bluntly, it meant the direct annexation of Serbia, or war. Serbia, in despair, cried to her Slav Big Brother—Russia—and the cry was heard.

Russia's first move was to beg for delay "to prevent the incalculable consequences. . . . A refusal to extend the terms of the ultimatum would be in contradiction with the very bases of international relations." Austria laughed. Germany, on the same day, July 24, told England that Austria's demands "can only be regarded as equitable and moderate." England, France and Russia protested anew. Berlin laughed.

At her wits' end, Serbia agreed to everything except the relinquishment of her national liberty. The Serbian answer was a humiliating reply, it granted practically every issue, it even contained a tacit abandonment of the Jugo-Slav dream. The reply reached the Austrian minister at Belgrade at 5:45 P. M., a quarter of an hour before the lapse of the ultimatum. The reply was telegraphed to Vienna, being filed there at 5.58 P. M., two minutes before the close of time.

It is generally asserted and credited that Austria did not even take the trouble to read and reply, but there is no proof of this. There could not be. There is definite proof, however, that there was no consultation over it. Twenty-eight minutes after the receipt of Serbia's reply—will the reader note, twenty-eight minutes to determine on the world war!—the German Ambassador at Belgrade informed the Serbian government that "not having received a satisfactory answer within the time limit set, he was leaving Belgrade."

Reorganization of the Serbian Army.

It would be interesting—but useless—to follow the network of diplomatic communications during the next three days to July 28, when Austria formally declared war on Serbia, and Austrian guns fired the first shot.

The Serbian campaigns are a part of the history of the war, what is here concerned are the world-issues, especially from their racial and political sides. The next great move was the declaration of Jugo-Slavia. in place of Greater Serbia, which was officially proclaimed by the Serbian government as its goal in December, 1914. The next move was the reorganization of the Serbian army, after its first overwhelming defeats, and its rejoining of the Allies' Forces at Saloniki in October, 1915. This was followed by the reconvocation of the Serbian Skuptschina or Parliament by the Acting Government at Corfu, Serbia having been conquered and being then in the enemy's hands.

From this point on, Serbia is scarcely a political entity during the war. A diplomatic and military understanding with the various South Slav peoples gave rise to a strong feeling on the part of the Allies that, in order to head off Teuton aspirations in the Balkans and to the southeast, to bar Germany from Turkey and to clip the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway project, Allied support of Jugo-Slav interests was of the first importance. France, quickly followed by England, declared herself

as favorable to the Jugo-Slav ideal. Italy and Russia had not officially done so. The United States was regarded by diplomats as favoring Jugo-Slav interests, though mainly in the form of presidential utterances, which, however interesting, have no special diplomatic value, for Europe regards the United States Senate as the treaty-making body. So far as the war of 1914-1918 is concerned, however, it has changed the "Greater Serbia" idea into the Jugo-Slav ideal and it has definitely swung the powers who proved victorious to the side of the Jugo-Slavs against the aggressions, respectively, of Austria, Turkey and Russia.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

LITHUANIA, POLAND, AND THE CZECHO-SLOVAKS.

Race Barriers in Eastern Europe—Tragedy of Poland, Once a Master Power—Polish Heroism in the War—Stubborn Lithuania—The Letts—Esthonia—High Standard of Czech Culture—Bohemia—Moravia—The Slovaks—Czecho-Slovak Forces in Siberia.

ON the eastern boundaries of the Teutonic peoples dwell the Slavs, with, here and there, an intrusion of the Mongolian or Yellow Race. As has been shown, to the south, largely owing to the fact that the Jugo-Slavs have been continuously oppressed, the various divisions of that group of peoples have not developed strong political individualities, Serbia and Montenegro excepted. But, when the various nations which extend along the Austrian and German frontiers northward, as far as the Baltic Sea, are considered, the direct opposite is true.

There are six groups of these, the Czecho-Slovaks, the Ukrainians, the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Letts and the Esthonians. The Czecho-Slovaks, the Ukrainians and the Poles are Slavs. The Lithuanians and the Letts are ethnological puzzles, being neither Slav nor Teuton, and are classed as a separate racial stock, called the Baltic Race. The Esthonians are not Aryans at all, but belong to that curious compound known as the Ugro-Finnic Race, which includes such scattered peoples as the Magyars of Hungary and the Finns of Finland, and which has the Tartars as cousins on one side and the Eskimo as relatives on the other.

It needs, therefore, no great amount of penetration to discover that these peoples cannot all be united, save by some arbitrary and imperial system which would contain the seeds of future war. The pity of the situation is that certain of these peoples have imperial aspirations to hold the other races in subjection. It is an open secret that Poland, needing an outlet to the sea, wishes to arrogate authority over the Lithuanians certainly and over either the Letts or the Germans as she can best make communications to the Baltic.

It will make the matter easier of understanding if the geographical and racial divisions of these separate peoples are considered, beginning

with the north, and going southward until the Jugo-Slav demarcation is encountered.

The Gulf of Finland—at the head of which is Petrograd—is the starting point. Both sides of this gulf are inhabited by people of the Finno-Ugric, which is a branch of the Mongolian or Yellow Race. The north shore is dominated by the Finns, the south shore by the Esthonians. Petrograd is not in Slavic Russia, but just at the point where the Slav and the Finnic races join. The province of Esthonia may roughly be regarded as the south shore of the Gulf of Finland, but the Esthonian peoples spill over into Livonia, the next province to the south. Livonia, inhabited by Letts, is the shore and hinterland of the Gulf of Riga. Courland, also inhabited by Letts, extends along the shore of the Baltic as far as the eastern border of Germany.

Strategy of the Baltic Provinces.

The three Baltic Provinces have a total area of over 34,000 square miles or twice as large as Switzerland, the total population is a trifle larger than that of Norway. About one-third of the population is Esthonian, more than a third Lettish, less than one-third German. The Russian admixture is slight.

Strategically the Baltic Provinces are important. They form Russia's only "window on the sea." Sea-power exists only via Lettish and Esthonian ports. Riga is a city with half a million inhabitants and the economic life of foreign trade in Russia lies mainly there. Yet Russia's cultural control is slight.

Historically the German claim has a solid basis. The savage and warlike paganism of that part of Europe was conquered and Christianized by the Teutonic Knights of the Sword, a German crusading order, in the thirteenth century. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries these provinces became successively the prey of Denmark, Sweden and Poland. When Peter the Great defeated Sweden in 1721, the Baltic Provinces came under Russian control. For nearly two centuries Russia tried to set the Letts and Esths against the Germans and, though she failed to make them Russian, she succeeded in awakening their national aspirations. This was the situation at the opening of the war. During the war Courland fell into German hands and Esthonia and Livonia remained Russian until the revolution and collapse of

Russia. From that time to the end of the war Germany assumed the right to dictate to the Baltic Provinces but achieved nothing definite.

Lithuania was once a powerful kingdom embracing all of Black Russia, and at the beginning of the fifteenth century she held nearly a half of European Russia, her boundary running roughly on a line from Moscow to the Crimea. Lithuania then united with Poland and her history became Polish, but when Poland was broken up she fell under the dominion of the newly formed Russian Empire, where she has remained ever since. The White Russians, while not true Lithuanians, possess a strong admixture of this race.

The Division of Poland.

Modern Lithuania is considerably larger than the Baltic Provinces, larger than Holland, Belgium and Denmark put together. The population is nearly 7,000,000, with a little less than one-half of the Lithuanian Race. Politically the Great Russians dominate, the cultural influence is Polish and the commercial influence is German. Lithuania was under Russian control at the opening of the war but in the autumn of 1915 Germany occupied the entire region. It was, therefore, conquered territory at the close of the war. This territory Poland claims, as does Germany. Lithuania proclaimed herself a Republic in December, 1918.

Where is Poland? It would puzzle a student of history to say. The answer would depend on the century. Poland was once the master of Eastern Europe, Poland was the very center and flower of chivalry, Poland was a giant when Russia was a dwarf. The partition of Poland is without a parallel in the international sport of carving up your neighbor's lands. Prussia, Austria and Russia stole—the word is used purposely—stole her territories and divided them. Now, Germany is vanquished, Austria has disintegrated and Russia has become a shambles of anarchy.

The national history of Poland has been long and glorious. She was Europe's defence against the Turk. She saved Vienna, and more, far more, she saved Christianity in Europe. The power of the Mohammedan stopped at Poland. The Cross, in Polish hands, overbore the Crescent.

In the seventeenth century Poland was one of the largest geographical states in Europe, extending from Posen (near Berlin) to Smolensk (near Moscow), and from Riga in the north to Bukowania

on the south. She was the third largest state in Europe and stood fifth in population. At the beginning of the world war Poland did not exist as a state, yet its ethnographical group of twenty-one millions made it sixth among the Powers, being slightly larger than the population of Spain.

Poland figured largely in the world war, not so much as Poland, but under territorial names, such as Silesia, which is German Poland, and Galicia, which is Austrian Poland. Yet Poland figured even more largely at the end of the war, for the reason that the Allies granted to the Polish armies in the field a belligerent status. In other words, a nation technically non-existent was recognized as existent and its armies were declared to be national armies by reason of their national spirit rather than their national integrity. Such an unprecedented state of affairs can only be understood by a knowledge of Polish history.

Poland Defeats Both Sweden and Russia.

Poland's importance as a land of national liberty begins in 1368 when Casimir the Great gave a liberal constitution to Poland. He formed a Poland more advanced than any European nation except Bohemia and England. This constitution, though its weaknesses were to become apparent later, smashed feudal abuses and gained for Casimir the name of "The Peasants' King." A century and a half later Poland and Lithuania defeated the famous czar, Ivan the Terrible, and at the Diet of Lublin, 1569, the two great kingdoms were joined with Warsaw as the capital.

At this time Sweden was becoming a great power and in 1655 the Swedes invaded Poland, in order to recover the Baltic Provinces. The Czar seized the opportunity to invade Lithuania. Yet, by the aid of her great military leader, Sobieski, Poland defeated both Sweden and Russia at the same time.

The Cossacks and the Ukrainians, however, had sided with Russia and aided by a huge army (for that time) of 300,000 Turks, Southern Poland was invaded in 1672 and overrun. The Treaty of Budziak gave the Polish Ukraine to the Sultan and guaranteed a yearly tribute. The Polish Diet, or parliament, refused to ratify the Treaty and in the famous Battle of Chocim, Sobieski led the Poles to victory and defeated the Mohammedan armies. The throne of Poland being vacant, Sobieski was crowned king.

Turkey, however, was to make one more attempt to bring Mohammedanism over Europe. With the avowed intention of putting to the sword every Christian who would not forswear his faith and bow the knee to Mohammed, the Sultan launched an attack on Vienna in June, 1683. The Emperor of Austria fled. The Siege of Vienna is famous, and the defence was on the point of abandonment, having held out for 58 days, when the King of Poland arrived on the scene with an army about one-fifth the size of the Turkish force and on September 12 of that year the power of the Turk in Europe was forever quelled.

The lack of a hereditary monarchy was the cause of Poland's downfall. Since the monarch was elective, the State was not stable, and every individual noble plotted for himself or his clique. The monstrous character of the Parliament, which did not rule by majority, but by unanimity, rendered it possible for one discontented noble to vitiate every advance.

In this unfortunate condition, there occurred a rare event in the monarchical sky—two great personalities at the same time. Frederick the Great sat on the throne of Prussia, Catherine the Great on the throne of Russia. Maria Theresa, on the throne of Austria, had been bled white through wars with Frederick the Great over Silesia. Catherine and Frederick callously decided to partition Poland. The treaty was signed in 1772 and Poland was denuded of one-third of her territory and a third of her population. The two powers generously (?) gave a strip of Little Poland to Austria.

Wars of Catherine the Great.

It would take up too much space to give the military complications of the next period. It will be enough to say that the death of Frederick the Great weakened Prussia, England was concerned with the revolution of 1776 which gave the United States of America to the world, France was preparing for the Revolution of 1789, the Sweden of Gustavus Adolphus had dwindled. Only Catherine the Great remained as a forceful power. Turkey declared war on Russia in 1787, Sweden—of all weird alliances!—declared war on Catherine in the following year. The terrible empress first whipped Sweden and then, in 1790, got the better of Turkey. But, in those four years Poland and Prussia had been plotting against Russia and Catherine sought revenge. She provoked Prussia and Austria to meddle in royalist plans in France—

that story is too long to tell—shrewdly set the southern Poles against the north and invaded Poland in 1792. The Prussian forces were speedily victorious and Catherine dickered with Prussia to partition Poland anew, remembering that Prussia had been beaten by France at Valmy and would need the salve of more territory. Russia cut the remainder of Poland in half and took three-quarters of the stolen land.

Now comes the period of Kosciusko. This young nobleman, having fled from his country by reason of a love affair, joined the Americans in the War of Independence, fought in 1776 as a Colonel of Artillery, rose to the rank of Brigadier General and was publicly thanked by Congress. He returned to Poland and was active in its affairs. The second partition of Poland in 1793 stirred Polish patriotic sentiment and Kosciusko set the land aflame. At the head of volunteer and ill-armed troops he defeated the Russian forces of occupation, and the insurrection spread all over Poland.

The End of Poland.

At first Kosciusko was extraordinarily and unexpectedly successful. He dodged, outfought and outmanoeuvred the Prussians, each week that went by seeming to bring back the hopes for an independent Poland.

But Catherine of Russia was not dead, yet. She was too wise a ruler to send an insufficient force against Poland. She waited until all her armies had been brought back from the Turkish frontier and launched them in three different campaigns at the same time. On November 10, 1794, at the Battle of Maciejowice, the Poles were cut to pieces and Kosciusko, falling wounded, exclaimed "The end of Poland!" His prophecy was true, for what remained of Poland was there and then divided among the three hungry powers.

Misfortune, moreover, was still to dog the steps of Poland. She turned her hopes on France and a Polish legion was sent to aid Napoleon Bonaparte. When, like the tread of Mars himself, Napoleon thundered over Europe, Poland rejoiced. It was a false hope, even though the Countess Walewska, who had captivated Napoleon, surrendered her honor to him in response to promises for her country's sake, promises he never kept. The fall of Napoleon drove Poland deeper into the mire.

Seventy years of misrule brought the Polish problem into the hands of Bismarck. The Iron Chancellor advocated a system of buying land

from Polish landowners and selling it to Germans. It was a part of his famous "infiltration" schemes. The plan succeeded, at first, but later the Poles turned the tables on the Germans and won more than they lost.

German misrule in Poland was even worse than Russian. In 1872 German was ordered as the only language to be used in the schools. In 1883 German was ordered for religious instruction. In 1899 Polish teachers were forbidden to speak Polish in their homes. In 1902 it became known that thousands of school children were flogged annually for refusing to say the Lord's Prayer in German. In 1906 half a million school children went on strike. The brutality employed by Prussian officialdom was incredible at the time, though the events of the world war in Belgium show that such methods are a part of Prussian character. Several children were flogged to death and tens of thousands of families were driven to starvation by the levy of enormous fines. It was the greatest uprising of childhood since the days of the Children's Crusade.

When the world war broke out, Poland was the battlefield of the east. German troops entered Warsaw, August 5, 1915. "The atrocities perpetrated by the Germans in Belgium and France," says one authority, "are mild compared with those committed in Poland." It is difficult to say anything more condemnatory.

German Conquest a Nightmare.

One story, however, may be told. In Czentochowa, a village of Russian Poland, is a small church containing the oldest known picture of the Virgin and Child in the world. It is a sacred relic. When the Germans reached that village, they tore the picture from its frame and dispatched it to Berlin, then put a vulgar portrait of the Kaiser in military uniform above the altar and forced the villagers at the bayonet-point to enter the church and kneel to the tawdry chromo above the desecrated shrine.

By the autumn of 1916, the German conquest of the world was seen to be a nightmare from the fear of which all nations were awakening. In an effort to win back Poland, and to save something from a possible crash, the Central Powers declared the independence of Poland, defining the new state, however, with vague boundaries which showed that Prussia intended to keep her own share of it, and merely robbing

Russia. The Polish legions and the Polish councils scornfully refused to accept the bait.

During 1917, the Allies announced their intention of restoring Poland to her former greatness. Details, of course, have not been formally announced, but during 1918 informal conferences suggested the restoration of Poland, from Russia; of West Prussia, Posen and Silesia, from Germany; of Austrian Silesia and Galicia from Germany. This would give Poland a territory of almost the same size as Italy and a population of 35,000,000. But this arrangement, or for that matter, almost any other, leaves the Polish question a breeding-ground of future wars.

If this last geographical boundary be borne in mind, however, it will at once make clear the question of the Czecho-Slovaks, whose territories are bounded on the north by Silesia and Galicia. These territories consist of three historic divisions with markedly different geographical characters. These divisions are Bohemia, Moravia and the Tatra, which last is the country of the Slovaks.

The Story of Bohemia.

Let it be said, at the outset, that Bohemia and the Bohemians are culturally as far advanced as Italy or the United States. It may simplify matters and keep the reader from falling into the mistake of confusing them with, say, the Slovaks or the Servians. Bohemia has a long and honorable history, possesses a marvellous literature, is a world-famous center for art and music and is the commercial and industrial section of Austria.

A powerful kingdom in the Middle Ages, Bohemia was trodden down by the Hapsburgs after the Thirty Years' War, which ended in 1648. The Hapsburg policy was simple. It consisted in killing all the Czech nobles, confiscating their lands and giving them to Austrian Germans. The story of Bohemia is singularly like that of Ireland. The Czech language, in the eighteenth century was confined mainly to peasants. Then, however, the revival spirit of the nineteenth century aroused Bohemia—just as it did in Ireland—and a national revival began. Only, possessing a land rich in mineral wealth and being aligned against a weak and tottering state, the Czech revival rushed forward with tornado velocity. By the middle of the nineteenth century, the Czechs were more than holding their own; when the war broke out, the

Czechs were in political control of Bohemia and Moravia and the Austrian Germans had been made to toe the mark.

Bohemia and the Czech question differs utterly from the Polish problem. The nineteenth century saw the Poles growing less united, the Bohemians, more so. The Poles in German Poland were ever more and more under the heel of Prussia; the Czechs, in Bohemia, were the masters.

The political situation at the outbreak of the war, therefore, had a great deal to do with Bohemia, though indirectly. Austria was aware that the empire was breaking up and she counted on war to unify the conflicting peoples. She saw the inevitable arrival of the time when the Czechs would demand an autonomous state and she realized that Prussian methods could only be put in force by Germany. In 1911, for example, the Austro-German minority in Bohemia came out point blank in the Prague disputes and announced their intention to work for a secession of Bohemia and Moravia from Austria to the German Empire.

The Czecho-Slovak Territories.

Moravia is a hill and plateau land, lying to the east of the high plateau of Bohemia—which overlooks the flat lands of Germany to the north and the Danube Valley to the south—and it is racially and historically allied to Bohemia. How little it may be inclined to love Austria may be gleaned from the fact that after the Thirty Years' War it was so depopulated by massacre that every man was ordered to marry two wives. It shared in the Czech revival of Bohemia.

The Slovak question is radically different. The Slovaks live in an infertile land of rugged mountains, the Western Carpathians are markedly backward in education and progress, little awakened to ideas of liberty and, since the Middle Ages, have been reduced to peasanthood by the dominant Magyar or Hungarian nobles. They were—and for that matter still are—Czechs, but they are totaly unlike their kinsmen of Bohemia.

The total area of the Czecho-Slovak territories is about three times the size of Switzerland. The total population is about 12,000,000, or as many as Norway, Sweden and Denmark together. Of these peoples 6,500,000 are Czechs, 2,000,000 are Slovaks, the Germans are 3,300,000 and the Magyars are only 200,000, but politically dominant in the lands of the Slovaks.

Strategically, Bohemia, Moravia and Tatra are essential to Austria-Hungary, for they are its defensible frontiers. Vienna would be open to attack, and Buda-Pesth likewise, should the Czecho-Slovak states be separated from the empire.

Economically, Bohemia, Moravia and Austrian Silesia are the richest parts of the Austrian Empire. Besides great agricultural wealth, the most important mineral deposits are situated there and those regions form the industrial center of the empire. Culturally, Bohemia is a powerful salient of the highest Slav thought thrust into Teuton civilization.

The Czecho-Slovaks, therefore, like the Jugo-Slavs, have become a nation during the war, although nation they have none. At the beginning of the war the Austrian armies contained about 600,000 Western Slavs from Bohemia and the Carpathians. From time to time, during the war, about 300,000 deserted to their brother Slavs, the Russians. In the debacle of July, 1917, the Czecho-Slovaks fought like demons to stay the tide of Russian treachery and were eager to face the foe alone.

The shameful peace of Brest-Litovsk left these hundreds of thousands of patriotic Slavs stranded, but, at the word of Professor Masaryk, Chief of the Czecho-Slovak National Council, they reorganized and started their amazing march across Russia and Siberia to cross the Pacific and Atlantic with the hope of joining the armies in France to meet the Central Powers face to face once more. The efforts of the Bolshevists to disarm them is told in the chapter on Russia.

Formation of the Czecho-Slovak Nation.

On May 30, 1917, in the Reichsrat, the Czech Deputies proclaimed the resolution of their nation, including the Slovaks of Hungary, to unite in an independent state. On January 6, 1918, the same deputies, together with representatives of the Diets of Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia solemnly asserted the rights of Czech countries and announced that a peace treaty which did not give them freedom would mean the beginning of another war. On April 13, 1918, the Czecho-Slovak deputies met in formal conclave with Jugo-Slav representatives and plighted a solemn covenant not to desist from war until both parts of oppressed Slavdom had been freed and given national liberty. Typically enough, the laying of the foundation stone of the Czech National Theatre at

Prague on May 16, 1918, became a formal alliance of the cultural interests of all the groups of the Western Slavs.

On June 30, 1918, France recognized the Czecho-Slovak nation in the following words: "The Government of the Republic deems it equitable and necessary to proclaim the rights of your nation to independence. . . . In the name of the government I express the sincerest wish that the Czecho-Slovak State may soon become, by the common efforts of all the Allies, in close union with Poland and the Jugo-Slav state an impassable barrier to Germanic aggression."

On August 13, 1918, the British government stated: "Great Britain regards the Czecho-Slovaks as an allied nation and recognizes the unity of the three Czecho-Slovak armies as an allied and belligerent army waging regular warfare against Austria-Hungary and Germany. Great Britain also recognizes the right of the Czecho-Slovak National Council as the supreme council of Czecho-Slovak national interests and as the present trustee of the future Czecho-Slovak Government to exercise supreme control over this allied and belligerent army." Other of the Allied governments followed later this recognition. The Central Powers, naturally, did not do so.

From what has been said in the foregoing two chapters it is clear, therefore, that the world war produced an entirely new alignment of the countries lying along the eastern border of Teutonism. No matter how boundaries, in the future, may change a little to this side or to that, it means a new map of Europe, based on racial homogeneity instead of political theft. The splendor of the triumph lies in the fact that the Allies, notably England and France, saw in victory the opportunity to help these aspirants to liberty instead of striving to enrich themselves at the expense of their weaker brethren. The world progresses.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

MODERN JAPAN AND THE NEW CHINA.

Shogunate and Samurai—The Restoration—Korea—Russo-Japanese War—The "Yellow Peril"—Old China—Boxer Rebellion—Manchuria—The Chinese Republic—Significance of Capture of Kiao-Chau by Japan—New Spheres of Influence in China.

OUTWARDLY, the Japan of today is different in a thousand ways from the Japan of yesterday. Inwardly, Japan is the same. "The Ethiopian cannot change his skin nor the leopard his spots," said a wise writer, many centuries ago. Japan can—and does—imitate and copy America and Europe, but she cannot be America or Europe. Costumes and customs may change, facts and fancies may be interchanged, but the soul of the yellow man and the soul of the white man will remain different through all. This is no criticism. It would be as deplorable to make Japan a little America, as it would be to make America a greater Japan.

Japan's internal history "has nothing to do with the case." The dynasty of the present Mikado was founded in 660 B. C. (so the claim runs) and reigned unbrokenly until 1585, when the Shogun, or Commander-in-Chief, usurped the governing power. In 1868 the Shogunate was overthrown and the Mikado rule was restored. This restoration was largely due to the anti-alien position of the Shogun government. Treaties of 1854 and 1863—loth though one may be to admit it—were arrogant intrusions of western powers. In 1871 the feudal system was overthrown and in 1889 Japan received a liberal constitution.

Japan's successful war with China in 1894 was brought about by China's intention to annex Korea. In 1898 Russia appropriated the Liao-tung peninsula, an act which was regarded by Japan as but a prelude to the seizure of Manchuria and Korea, which, in turn, would make Russia a sea-power on the Pacific and would menace Japan's very existence. The Russo-Japanese war of 1904 was the natural sequence. The defeat of Russia put Japan on the map as a first-class power.

At the opening of the war, however, Japan was more afraid of Germany than of Russia. She had historic cause. At the end of the Chinese War, when the Japanese prepared to occupy the Liao-tung peninsula, which they had won, the German Minister at Tokio, presented a note to the Japanese Foreign Minister. This read, in part: "Germany is strong, Japan is weak; what may follow your refusal of this advice is not difficult to foretell." The Hun, like the leopard, does not change his spots, either!

Whereupon, when Germany seized Kiao-Chau Bay in 1897 on the flimsy pretext that it was in reparation of the murder of two German missionaries in the interior of Shantung, Japan had to keep quiet. When she saw the whole province of Shantung become a German "sphere of influence," she was still compelled to sit still and say nothing. To have Germany and Russia against her at the same time would have been too dangerous.

Japan Wants a "Place in the Sun."

To Americans, generally, the "yellow peril" is something very real. Discounting many highly imaginary stories woven by the anti-Japanese propagandists in the United States, the fact remains that the Japanese laboring man could under-bid, under-cut and under-live the American laboring man at all points. American labor, especially on the Pacific coast, is savagely hostile to Japanese immigration.

One more thing remains to be said. Japan, far more urgently than Germany, demands a "place in the sun." She will not be content until she gets it. The Mongolian race, if organized and equipped for war, could drive all the white races off the map of the Far East. It is well to remember that the munition plants in Japan are not inferior to those in the United States. It is well to remember that the Japanese are extraordinarily good soldiers and that they can march further on less food than any other army in the world. It is to be remembered that a Mongolian War would have a solidarity which no Alliance could equal. There may never be such a war, but as long as a Yellow Race and a White Race inhabit this planet the possibility of such a war remains.

The seizure of Kiao-Chau was Japan's most signal act of the war. It was important, because it drove Germany from Shan-tung. It was far more important, however, because it linked Japan and China in

an Alliance. Japan and Russia—whatever that word may come to mean in the next few decades—already have an agreement. The Anglo-Japanese agreement continues only to 1921. In January, 1915, Japan asked China for a concession allowing her to connect Wu-chang by rail with the Kiukiang-Nanchang line. England stopped it. In June, 1915, there was tension between England and Japan over the stoppage of Japanese merchant vessels in Chinese waters. In the spring of 1918 a bitter controversy arose regarding Japan's interest in Oceania. At the close of the war, England and Japan, though allies, were not friends.

Again, in 1917 and 1918 there were curious interchanges of notes between Germany, Mexico and Japan. The State Department made public only a few of these papers, and kept silence on those which dealt with Japan. It cannot be said that Japan, though an ally, is a friend of the United States. As Japan has a population of 76,500,000, not far short of the German Empire, she is a power to be reckoned with.

The Open Door in China.

The world war has not touched China, except in the single matter of Kiao-Chau, which was a German "sphere of influence." But he knows little of world-politics who does not know that the "Open Door in China" enters into every diplomatic question. The record of European intrusion in China is staggering. Following on the atrocious "opium war," England annexed Hong-Kong in 1841. Russia quietly grabbed all the territory north of the Amur River in 1860, quite without cause. In 1874 France took Annam, and again, in 1885 seized Tonquin. In 1887 Portugal felt hungry and cut off Macao for herself. These are not small pieces. French Indo-China contains 16,000,000 people.

The merry game of international theft was not yet over. Germany seized Kiao-Chau in 1897, the Russians occupied Port Arthur in the same year, while the British "leased" Wei-hai-wei and Kowloon in 1898 and France "leased" Kwan-chow Bay for a naval base in the same year The partition of China was the next step.

America then formulated the "open door" policy, realizing that if the European powers divided China, it would minimize American influence on the Pacific. Russia and Britain, however, proceeded to punch holes in the "Open Door" policy while outwardly supporting it.

The treaty of Portsmouth, which ended the Russo-Japanese war, did not divert Russia from the East, it only changed her mode of approach. Gradually she became dominant in Mongolia, an area of 1,300,000 square miles. The Chinese Revolution of 1911 gave a further opportunity and on October 3, 1912, Russia added to her dominions a piece of territory as large as one-third of the United States. It was a big bite. In all, the Russian sphere of influence in China at the opening of war was a total of 1,821,000 square miles.

It is rarely that Great Britain allows herself to be overlooked. In February, 1913, England had closed a practical suzerainty over Thibet which, with Sze-Chuan, Kwantung, and the provinces along the Yang-Tsi-Kiang, gave her a total of 1,199,800 square miles. France had Yun-nan, 146,700 square miles, and Germany had 55,900 square miles. Japan has a larger slice than any foreign power, possessing for her sphere of influence South Manchuria, Eastern Inner Mongolia, Pukien, and a section of Shantung, totalling 2,004,600 square miles.

China's Economic Question.

A sharp commercial clash occurred in March, 1914, between America and Japan, over a railroad rebate question which was regarded as discriminating against American cotton trade. One year later, Japan was compelled to yield the point. This factor is important, for Japan makes no secret of the fact that it is her ambition to dominate the commerce of the Far East. She regards it as her prescriptive right in view of the fact that she is the leading Asiatic power. There are many arguments in her favor. One of them is a powerful navy. The Philippines question has a queer window to the east, but is not germane to this book.

The economic question in China is complicated in the last degree. The United States withdrew from the famous "five-power loan" in deference to the wishes of President Wilson. It is generally agreed, now, that the President's fears were unfounded. America did, however, make a large loan to China in 1916.

At the close of the war China was a republic. The reader will remember that there are many different kinds of republics. The first alleged republic of China was constituted February 12, 1912. When Yuan Shih-Kai dissolved the Chinese Parliament in 1913 the republic ceased to be such in anything but name. In 1915 China speeded back

to monarchy. On October 23, 1915, Yuan Shih-Kai was "appointed by Heaven to ascend the Throne of the Chinese Empire and to transmit it to his heirs for ten thousand generations." Yuan abdicated as Emperor the following March but remained President. On May 10 Li Yuan-Hung was nominated President by the southern provinces. The following year was one of civil war. Yuan died on June 6, 1916, and Li Yuan-Hung became President. He promptly restored the Constitution, the Parliament was convoked on August 1, 1916, and commenced to draft a Permanent Constitution.

The year 1917 was a constant struggle, and though both political parties favored Germany, England succeeded in forcing China to break diplomatic relations. In 1918 the civil war confusion continued, and Chinese participation in the world war proved a false hope, for the north was set against the south, the royalists against the republicans, and each party was split into a thousand cliques. A few regiments were sent to France but only as an evidence of alliance.

Over China hangs Japan, eager to bite off another piece of the Celestial Land, and over Japan hang the powers, equally greedy for themselves and all alike suspicious of Japan. Still further overhead hangs the United States, as little inclined to give Japan added territory as Japan is inclined to see the Allies increase their Asiatic holdings. Meanwhile, China gets nothing. Let no one deem the Chinese question settled!

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE CENTRAL POWERS—A GENERAL REVIEW.

Military, Political and Economic Conditions of the Three Empires and Their Bulgarian Link—The Berlin-to-Bagdad Railway—Colonies of the Central Powers—The Breakdown of the Kaiser-Forged Chain and Appeals for a Separate Peace.

THE world war, regarded as a whole, gave the student of world history one astounding surprise. This was the defection of all elements in the Central Powers which were not either Asiatic or Teuton. The phrase—"The Hun"—which came to be the current appellation for the Central Powers, and which was largely based upon a parallel between the atrocities of the infamous Attila and of the German hosts in Belgium, has a much deeper root in history. The German-Austro-Hungarian-Bulgar-Turk alliance was not an alliance of one group of European nations against another, but an alliance of Teutonized Asiatic barbarians against Europe. The statement that "America entered the war for the cause of civilization" is not a pretty preachment, but a vital and a sober truth.

Without entering into the question of colonies, the home lands of the three empires and one kingdom, which constituted the Central Powers, contained almost 50,000,000 Asiatics. These armies of Asiatic peoples of Turk, Turko-Tartaric, Mongolian or Finno-Ugric race, were officered by Teutons and supplied with Teuton artillery. The Asiatic is the Leviathan to Europe, living hidden in his deep Oriental ocean. In that most marvellous book, the Old Testament, is summed up the dark, irresponsible enormity of Leviathan in the words of the Book of Job: "Will he make a covenant with thee?" The Teuton menace was the supposed covenant with Leviathan.

In other chapters of this book, the individual characteristics and the history of the nations comprising the Central Powers have been stated, but in a general review of the whole Alliance it is well to observe that the war was really and truly a war of Civilization against what may be called Barbarianism rather than barbarism. Gilbert K. Ches-

terton coined a great phrase when he spoke of the Central Powers as "veneered vandals." A Vandal, in the historic sense, was one who sought to destroy the evidences of civilization because they evinced a cultural state different from his own, and veneering is merely the covering of this desire with the trappings of the civilization he despised.

"A solemn promise," says Chesterton, and one cannot refrain from quoting, "a promise, like the wind, is unknown in nature and is the first mark of man. It may be said with all seriousness 'In the Beginning was the Word.' The vow is the voice of Man, whereby he is known. It is not easy to mention anything on which the enormous apparatus of human life can be said to depend. But, if it depends on anything, it is on this frail cord, flung from the forgotten hills of yesterday to the invisible mountains of tomorrow. On that solitary string, a man's word, hangs everything, all the principles by which human society has been made possible hitherto. On that solitary string the barbarian is hacking with a sabre which is fortunately blunt."

Military Pre-War Superiority of the Central Powers.

The Central Powers were extremely fond, during the war, of boasting that "Germany had all the world against her, and was facing them all down." A curious boast, indeed, to pride oneself on having aroused the contempt, the dislike, and the resentment of the whole world. So might a duellist, convicted of foul play, boast that no gentleman would fight with him, so might a swindling merchant boast that no one would trade with him. This is the very quintessence of barbarism, to take pride in destroying every evidence of a civilization which is not theirs. There is one terrible proof, one trenchant comparison. Compare Germany's acts at the opening of the war when she was sure of triumph, and the Allies' acts at the end of the war, when they were sure of triumph!

Viewed as a whole, the Central Powers represented a population of 150,000,000, a number vastly smaller than the populations aligned against them. Seven-eights of their population, however, was on the homeland, while, of the far vaster population of the British Empire and of the French and Italian possessions, only three-eights was available.

Viewed as a military unit, the position of the Central Powers was incalculably better than that of the Allies, especially in the event of a

short war. Eastern and western battle-fronts were connected by good railways and transportation was reduced to a minimum. A German regiment might fight on the French frontier one week and on the Russian frontier the next. An English regiment fighting on the French frontier would have to cross the Atlantic Ocean, the whole of Canada, the Pacific Ocean, the broad wastes of Siberia and all of Russia to reach the place that its Prussian opponents had reached in a few days.

Viewed as a military economic unit, the position of the Central Powers was ideal—for a short war. There were vast stores of grain on hand, Hungary was one of the best wheat countries in the world and countless millions of sheep grazed on the mountain slopes of Bulgaria and Turkey. The great military works of Essen in Germany and Skoda in Austria were able to turn out quantities of munitions and transport presented no serious difficulties.

Germany Wanted a Short War as Only Hope.

As a social economic unit, the Central Powers were poorly equipped. Germany was bankrupt, or, at least, was on the very edge of a panic brought about by the reaction from a period of inflation. Austria-Hungary, in her divided state, had been in a state of money stress for twenty years, Bulgaria was new in the family of nations and had not been able to build up a sufficiency of credit, and Turkey had become so accustomed to the pawnshop method of getting money that she had forgotten both industry and trade.

Factors such as these are matters of difficulty in a short war. They spell irretrievable ruin in a long war. Germany knew this well, and she knew that it was imperative for her to win the war quickly. She reckoned that if she tried to force her way by Verdun, she would be stopped, and every day's delay was vital. If she broke her treaties and went via Belgium, then the war might go quickly and Liége was the road to the coal and iron mines of Northern France. The blame for Germany's invasion of Belgium is by no means to be put entirely on the military authorities of Germany. The bankers knew, and said, that a short war was the only hope.

The entanglement of the Central Powers with the Russian question, again, was an economic problem. The theory that the Czar willingly allowed himself to be pushed into war against Germany in order that

he might deliver up the country afterwards is not supported by the evidence. Just what did cause this change in Russia's attitude will be dealt with in full hereinafter, but in the larger light of world issues it is clear that three things made the Central Powers seek an alliance with Russia during the war. These three were: the English blockade, the entrance of Italy into the war and the final victory of the Venizelos party over King Constantine in Greece. These three events shut off, in turn, the North Sea, the Adriatic Sea and the Ægean Sea. The Baltic Sea being included in the British blockade, this left the Central Powers without a single port.

Thus came about Zeppelin and submarine raids. It is a gross mistake—continuously made by American writers during the war—to suppose that Germany did not see the futility of her Zeppelin raids. Without infringing on the military history of aviation, which is dealt with elsewhere in this book, it is worthy of mention here that the number of men killed in Zeppelin raids was fewer than the number of men in Zeppelin crews lost by those raids. In other words, the Zeppelin was not only a huge monetary loss, but tactically, it was a military loss. Psychologically considered, it was an obsession, a part of the false "frightfulness" idea which is treated in the chapter on Germany. In actual fact, the Zeppelin raids were compulsory for the morale of the German public. It was necessary to show that while the seas might be blockaded, Germany was not entirely hemmed in.

Germany's Purpose in the Submarine.

The submarine menace was a more potent weapon. Its purpose, however, was the same. It is foolish to blame the Germans for not having confined their submarine raids to enemy battleships. That was not their point. It really would have done but little good. A submarine attacking a cruising fleet has her fate sealed at once by the combination of hydroplanes, destroyers and depth bombs. The submarine was primarily an agent of frightfulness and a commerce destroyer. A true under-water cargo boat would have been a boon to Germany, but there was no such craft invented. The submarine was Germany's answer to the closing of the three seas.

Toward the middle period of hostilities, the Berlin-to-Bagdad railway project took on a new form. During the summer of 1916, German engineers and German diplomats were working on the development of

Southern Russian railways, with Constantinople held out as the bait. This somewhat ingenious idea gave Turkey a large section of the Balkans with an Adriatic shore, gave the Bosphorus to Russia, the Dardanelles to Turkey and made of the Sea of Marmora a protected sea governed by the mutual interests of Russia, Germany, Bulgaria and Turkey. Moreover, the Central Powers were simultaneously planning this project, in various forms, with the Great Russians in Petrograd, the Little Russians in Kiev and the Cossacks in Odessa. There seems reason to believe that this hopeful scheme was hatched in Sofia, for only by some such arrangement could Bulgaria get her fingers into the Constantinople pie.

Germany's Waning Power.

In the following chapter on Germany it will be shown how a German error in race psychology led to the entrance of England and the United States into the war. From the point of view of the Central Powers, however, the greatest psychological error was that of regarding the Russians as fellow-barbarians. Barbarous, indeed, they proved to be; barbarians, they were not. The revolution which was fomented by Russian and Turkish emissaries recoiled on their heads and the Central Powers found themselves worse isolated than before. Diplomacy might be able to do something with a venal court; it could do nothing with a seething hotbed of young republics, each with a different ideal.

The Kaiser had forged the first link of the Berlin-to-Bagdad chain by his visit to "Abdul Hamid, his brother" in 1888. He forged the Austrian link by supporting the Bosnian annexation of 1908, and the Bulgarian link by being the enemy of England, which had demanded the Bulgarian relinquishment of the "Greater Bulgaria" awarded by the Treaty of San Stefano.

By a curious inversion of circumstances, Germany's partial success on the eastern front was the cause of the loss of her eastern prestige. When the Central Powers found it necessary to devote their whole force to the French and Italian fronts, the eastern nations regarded Germany's strength as waning, which it undoubtedly was. No longer had the Kaiser a long arm to reach into Asia Minor. England crept up to Bagdad. The cavalry of England and France swept up to Antioch. Jerusalem fell into British hands.

The Kaiser's power over Turkish thought dwindled and perished. The failure of German diplomacy in Greece and the reconstruction of Roumania taught Bulgaria that Germany was failing. The Kaiser's influence in Sofia guttered down to the socket and went out. The Berlin-to-Bagdad chain was broken.

Moreover, the German colonial empire was no more. In Africa, "the land of the marvellous future," Germany possessed over 1,000,000 square miles, or territories about the size of British India, with a population of 12,000,000. By January 1, 1918, every scrap of this had been conquered.

German Territory Conquered by Allies.

The conquests were as follows: Togoland, 33,700 square miles, captured by a Franco-British expedition, August 26, 1914; German Samoa, 1,000 sq. m., captured by New Zealand forces, August 30, 1914; German New Guinea, 90,000 sq. m., captured by an Australian expedition, September 11, 1914; Caroline, Solomon and Marshall Islands, 10,500 sq. m., captured by Japanese, October 7, 1914; Kiao-Chau, 200 sq. m., captured by Japanese-British force, November 7, 1914; German Southwest Africa, 322,450 sq. m., captured by Union of South Africa troops under a Boer General, July 9, 1915; Kamerun, 300,000 sq. m., captured by a Franco-British force, February 18, 1916; German East Africa, 384,000 sq. m., captured by British-South African troops, December 1, 1917. This settled the hopes of Germany's oriental allies. If she could not hold her own colonies, how could she be counted upon to undertake and carry out new obligations to them?

The break on the Asiatic side of the alliance brought down the Central Powers in its fall. After Turkey and Bulgaria had sued for a separate peace and after the German hopes of Russian support had proved to be but leaning on a broken reed, the game was up. Had Germany been three times as strong as she was on the western front, had she still possessed stores of men and materials to draw on, it would have been of no use. Had the United States not been present at Chateau Thierry the result would have been the same. A long, drawn-out fight might have resulted, many more hundreds of thousands of gallant soldiers would have lost their lives on both sides, but Germany could not win, could never have won.

Thirty years had elapsed since the Kaiser's visit to Abdul Hamid,

thirty years of gradual preparation for the Teuton-Asiatic attack on modern civilization. The chain broke, as it ever does, at its weakest link. Not even Prussianism could put the Occident into the Orient, and Western Europe could not permit the Orient to march westward again. As an evil dream fades at the awakening born of sunlight, so the nightmare of Prusso-Turk barbarianism fled away at the light of righteousness that glittered on the bayonet-points of the Allies and the United States.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE MILITARISTIC GERMAN EMPIRE.

Old Germany a Loose Confederation of States—Bismarck, "Old Blood and Iron"—Dropping the Pilot—Nietzsche and Treitsche—Bernhardi and Pan-Germanism—Kaiserdom and Junkerism—War!—The Crucial Mistake, an Error in Race Psychology.

"WE do not make war against the German people, but against Junker rulers of Germany," is a phrase which became current in America during the war, and which was nothing more or less than an ingenious piece of German propaganda. President Wilson, himself, at the time fell into the trap of repeating it. It was equivalent to saying "We do not make war against Americans but against the American Constitution and the Congress of the United States." Militarism was as much a part of the soul of the German people at the close of the war as popular representation was a part of the soul of the American people.

The history of Germany is marked by one significant fact. In the great struggle for political liberty which marked the centuries of the Renaissance and the Reformation, the scattered German states played but little part. The top-heavy Holy Roman Empire—which was Catholic—and the feuds of the petty electorates, margravates and princelings—most of whom were Protestant——prevented any united action. Germany had given birth to princes and to theologians. She had never given birth to patriots and liberators.

The proof of this dissension lies in the fact that when Napoleon went through Germany like a tornado, he found nearly 300 principalities, dukedoms, free cities and what not, all an alleged part of the crumbling Holy Roman Empire. Only four states, said a contemptuous contemporary historian, "were larger than a potato field." These four were Saxony, Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and Prussia.

Prussia was the master spirit of Germany then, as she was at the opening of the world war. In the seventeenth century Frederick William "the Great Elector," had created Prussia, turning two minor

provinces into a military monarchy. Frederick the Great, who came to the throne of Prussia in 1740, was one of the great rulers of all time. He was a military leader of the first rank. He was also somewhat ruthless in matters of diplomacy. "Take what you can," he wrote, "you are never wrong unless compelled to give it back." On another occasion he wrote "The Right is an affair only for the clergy." As has been shown in the chapter on Poland, he joined hands with Catherine the Great of Russia to make mincemeat of the territories which lay between them.

For fifty years after his death Germany made little political progress. When the beginnings of a liberal movement in Germany—a late and feeble copy of other nations—arose in 1843, Frederick William IV said of the proposed constitution that "he would never allow a blotted parchment to come between Almighty God and this land," meaning himself. The revolution of 1848 in France and the establishment of the Second Republic, suggested to the Prussians the possibility of imitation. There were a few street riots which alarmed the King sufficiently to induce him to convoke a national parliament to debate concerning a constitution.

The Plan of Bismarck.

The parliament degenerated into a professional debating society, and when, at last, it offered the crown to the King—who already had it—and tried to give it an imperial character, the King refused it on the ground that a crown given by plebeians was but "a crown of mud and wood." The whole project went to pieces and Carl Schurz and the leaders fled to America. Sixty-five years later, von Bülow was to say of his own nation that "despite the great qualities with which the German people is endowed, political talent has been denied it." In 1858 Frederick William was removed to an asylum, his brain having given way.

William I, "William the Silent," or "Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse," came to the throne in 1858. He was bitterly unpopular. Not only that, but his prime minister, Otto von Bismarck, his minister of war, von Roon and his chief general, von Moltke, were hated even more. But there was something new in Germany, there was a man with a plan. The man was Bismarck, and the plan was the consolidation of

Germany under Prussian leadership, rather than under Austrian, as all former efforts had been.

Now, for the first time, a real movement against militarism began. The Prussian Chamber of Deputies in 1861 refused to vote the large appropriations demanded by the King for the strengthening of the army. William I showed some fear, Bismarck, none. On the contrary, in 1862 the Iron Chancellor offered to hold office in defiance of parliament and to collect taxes without authority of law. It was then that he uttered his famous dictum: "The unity of Germany is not to be brought about by speeches, nor by votes of majorities, but by blood and iron." Protests by parliament were thrown into the waste-paper basket unread, the press was muzzled, local municipal bodies who dared to pass resolutions counter to the government were fined. In any country but Prussia this would have caused revolution, in Prussia it created admiration.

The North German Confederation.

The first blow for modern Germany was struck in 1864, when Bismarck seduced Austria into an alliance, and, thus strengthened, forced Denmark to abandon Schleswig-Holstein. Then Bismarck turned on his former ally, and, at the Battle of Sadowa in 1866, humbled Austria. This victory was potent. It compelled Austria to relinquish control of the South German States, Hesse-Darmstadt, Baden, Wurtemburg and Bavaria. It did more. It enabled Prussia to take the lead in establishing the North German Confederation on August 18, 1866.

The make-up of Germany both at the beginning and the end of the world war was a matter of such importance that it is necessary to give a little detail of the North German Confederation. It superseded the Germanic Confederation, which, in turn, superseded the Confederation of the Rhine. The latter, also known as the League of the Germanic States was formed by Napoleon, July 12, 1806, when he abolished the Holy Roman Empire which had endured since 962 A. D. The Confederation of the Rhine ended with the collapse of Napoleon.

The Germanic Confederation was constituted June 8, 1815, and comprised: Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, Hanover and Wurtemburg, Baden, the electorate and grand duchy of Hesse, Denmark, Holland, Saxe-Weimer, Saxe-Coburg, Saxe-Meiningen and Saxe-Altenburg, Brunswick and Nassau, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-

Strelitz, Oldenburg, the three Anhalts and the two Schwarzburgs, the two Hohenzollerns, Liechtenstein, Reuss, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe and Waldeck, and the free cities of Hamburg, Bremen, Frankfort and Lubeck.

The North German Confederation was formed by Bismarck on August 18, 1866, and differed radically from its predecessors. The former confederations had been but loose aggregations of states but the union created by Bismarck was a stiff offensive and defensive alliance. It was, to all practical purposes, a single country, comprising Prussia, Saxe-Wiemar, Oldenburg, Brunswick, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Anhalt, Schwarzburg, Waldeck, Reuss, Lippe, Lubeck, Hamburg and Bremen. In the course of the next two months, the Mecklenburgs, Hesse, Saxe-Meiningen and Saxony joined, and the first meeting of the North German parliament was held at Berlin, February 24, 1867.

Bismarck's Ingenious Statecraft.

The Franco-Prussian War, as has been shown in a foregoing chapter on Alliances, was forced by Bismarck not because of any enmity to France, but because he felt the need of a war to bring into an active alliance those states of South Germany which had been in the Confederation of the Rhine, but had refused to join the North German Confederation. Moreover, he was a shrewd enough statesman to realize that he must make large concessions. Thus, for example, Bavaria, Saxony and Wurtemburg were left as semi-independent kingdoms, with their own parliaments and control of their own armies in peace times. Questions of taxation, also, were left to them.

Accordingly, when the King of Prussia was made Emperor in Versailles in 1871, he was not proclaimed Emperor of Germany. There is no such position. William I was proclaimed "German Emperor," the distinction being that he held an imperial crown for the German people but not over the German States. On the other hand, the offices of King of Prussia and German Emperor were made inseparable, therefore, since the kingship was hereditary, the Kaisership was hereditary also.

An even more ingenious piece of statecraft was Bismarck's parliamentary handling of the Reichstag and the Bundesrat. This is a question which had much to do with the world war.

The Reichstag was supposedly a liberal parliament, originally con-

sisting of 397 members, but gradually increased until on February 16, 1918, the Bundesrat approved a bill increasing the membership of the Reichstag to 441. The members were elected by an almost universal male suffrage. But—and this is the essential point—the Emperor had a right to dissolve the Reichstag after a vote by the Bundesrat. Thus, no matter what the Reichstag might or might not have wished to do, if it ran counter to Kaiserism, it could be promptly dissolved, and the process repeated until a tame Reichstag was secured, one which would eat out of the Imperial hand.

Since, then, the Bundesrat was thus all-powerful, it is necessary to understand the basis on which it is constituted. The Bundesrat was Bismarck's scheme for substituting imperial control for popular control. At the opening of the war (and at the close) it consisted of 61 members appointed by the governments of the individual states, but under such conditions that the delegates to this council were, of necessity, the choice of the kings, princes and grand-dukes of the empire. Officially Prussia had but 17 votes in the Bundesrat, but as the princelings could not but stand with the Kaiser and as a large proportion of votes was in the hands of the old North German Confederation, the Bundesrat was in the hollow of the Kaiser's hand.

Junkerism a Part of the Political System.

The parliaments of the several states, such as the Landtag of Prussia, bore much the same relation to the Reichstag and Bundesrat that the assemblies of the states of the United States bear to the House of Representatives and the Senate. Of this Landtag, the upper house was controlled solely by birth and wealth. The same principle, with certain modifications, prevailed in each state.

Be it observed that this was Junkerism, and that Junkerism was not merely an excrescence foisted upon Germany by Emperor William II and his party but an essential, integral part of the political system of the empire from the great Kingdom of Prussia to the smallest principality whose very name is unknown to most Americans. The junker, in the true sense of the word was a country magnate. If rich and powerful, he was like a noble of the old French regime—if only moderately well-placed, he was like an English squire during the Georgian period; if poverty-stricken, he resembled an Irish squireen. Whether rich, well-off or poor, however, marriage with a girl who had a suffi-

ciently large dowry to support him as an army officer was the goal of every one. As social precedence was governed by military precedence, the wife of a sub-lieutenant would have social precedence over the wife of a world-renowned scientist or of a millionaire merchant.

"This payment by means of social honor instead of by salaries," says Davis, "was part of the efficient Prussian system of getting the greatest possible results for the minimum public expenditure. It helped the Hohenzollerns to keep up a huge army on a relatively small military budget." It was the key to Junkerism, the prop and pillar of Prussianism. It explains the anomaly of a huge Prussian army in a bankrupt country at the opening of the war.

Obligatory Service in the German Army.

Moreover, every German was a compulsory soldier. The term of service in the First Line was seven years, two in the ranks and five in the reserve; in the cavalry and horse artillery, three in the ranks and four in the reserve. This took a young man's life from 20 to 27 years of age. The period of the Landwehr or Second Line Army was five years in the first "ban" and seven years in the second "ban." He was still a reserve soldier to the age of 39. From that time on men passed into the Landsturm or home defence army until the age of 45 years.

The disproportionately large force of officers in time of peace, which was the most distinguishing feature of German life before the war, was due to the fact that all these reservists could be called to the colors and immediately placed in active service under trained officers. This avoided the extraordinary difficulty that England encountered, when she raised an enormous volunteer army for the war, and the necessity under which the United States labored of employing officers whose terms of training had been very short compared with those in European armies.

Certain phrases become watchwords. One of these resulted from a cartoon in the London satiric weekly "Punch," which showed the Kaiser, William II, on board a ship bidding farewell to Bismarck. It was called "Dropping the Pilot!" The actual happening came about thus. When the Kaiser—he who brought about the world war—came to the throne, he felt the Iron Chancellor to be a stronger man than himself. He decided to reduce the powers of the Chancellorate. Bis-

marck objected. The Kaiser insisted. "Am I to understand, your Majesty," asked the greatest statesman of the nineteenth century, "that I am in your way?" "Yes!" was the reply. Bismarck prepared to resign. The letter of resignation did not come fast enough. The Kaiser drove in haste to Bismarck's residence, summoned the aged statesman from his bed and commenced to bully him. Bismarck refused his commands. "I order it as your sovereign!" said the arrogant young monarch. "The commands of my King cease at my wife's drawing-room," quoth the Iron Chancellor. Thenceforth William II was to walk uncounselled. He strode, head high, to defeat.

Another pregnant phrase summarized Germany's position. "We need a place in the Sun!" This was neither vain boast, nor blind arrogance. It was a terrible truth. Entering the list of powers at so late a date (1871) most of the territory available for colonial possession had been taken by other nations. Moreover, the huge military and naval expenses which had developed since 1901, the exorbitant socialistic pension schemes, the vast sums for local and municipal improvements had reduced Germany to a state of beggary. "What comes next?" asked a diplomatic agent of the head of the Reichsbank, the great financial institution of Germany. "Smash comes next!" was the reply.

Germany's Pre-War Financial Condition.

Naturally, Germany never published any financial documents showing her weakness. But neither did she publish any showing her supposed strength. Almost the only authoritative statement made during the war was that by Crammond, the great English expert, Secretary of the Liverpool Stock Exchange, who was asked by the London Chamber of Commerce to compare the English and German financial situations. His report may be colored, but the figures in the case may be taken as approximately true.

At the opening of the war, Crammond pointed out, Germany had a gold reserve of $465,000,000, a war-chest large enough to meet her mobilization needs. The coined gold actually in the country was estimated at $1,000,000,000 (German sources of information). By March, 1916, all the war-chest money had been spent, the four war loans had taken from the German people $11,600,000,000 and the Reichsbank held only $625,000,000 in gold. Against this gold she had issued $4,625,-

000,000 notes, making a note insolvency of $4,000,000,000. Germany was thus, technically, bankrupt to the extent of four billion dollars to her people, at the middle of the war on notes alone, and was, moreover, presumptively bankrupt to the extent of eleven billion dollars in promises to pay on bonds.

Germany's investments abroad (including those in the United States) were $5,850,000,000, of which, at that time, more than half was unrealizable. (By the end of the war, all of it was unrealizable.) Her merchant shipping, consisting of 5,459,296 tons, was all either sunk, captured or rusting in neutral and German harbors. Her credit in the world was gone, her commercial prestige ruined, and the value of the mark had declined to a vanishing point on the world's exchanges. Only crushingly heavy indemnities levied on the Allied Nations could have saved Germany from an economic defeat. That was the secret which welded economic Germany behind the war party. The military defeat of Germany was not more crushing than the economic defeat she had brought upon herself. She waged the war as a cloak to hide her unstable financial state, staking all on one throw. She lost.

The Course of German Philosophy.

Germany's "place in the sun," moreover, was closely allied to the great question of Pan-Germanism. In order to simplify this angle of the subject it will be presented under three heads, attached to what may be called the three prophets of that creed. These are Nietzsche, the prophet of the philosophy of Pan-Germanism; Treitsche, the prophet of the doctrine of Pan-Germanism, and Bernhardi, the prophet of the means of Pan-Germanism. The first was a philosopher, the second a professorial politician, the third a soldier.

It is tempting to trace the course of German philosophy, but space demands only the briefest mention. In 1808, Fichte proclaimed the first article of the Pan-Germanic creed: "Germany is to the rest of the world as good is to evil." In 1844 von Fallersleben composed the national song: "Deutschland über alles, über alles in der Welt." (Germany over all, over all in the world.) Nietzsche presented the thesis of the Super-man, with the German playing that role, and impiously tried to prove that Jesus of Nazareth was a German, a thesis which Chamberlain carried to the most literal alleged proof. True to the Hun spirit Nietzsche wrote, "This new law, O my brothers, I give

you, 'Become Hard!' " Of war he wrote: "Ye shall love peace as a means to new wars—and a short peace more than a long." The Kaiser's pastor declared from the pulpit "God loves Prussia, He may love the rest of the world." This culminates in Kaiser Wilhelm's famous words "Me und Gott!" in which he blasphemously placed himself first.

Treitsche was the historian of the Hohenzollerns, and, as a professor of history in the University of Berlin, he was an inspired prophet. His lecture rooms were crowded, not only by students, but by high officials. In the years 1890-1900, intellectually he ruled political Germany by a marvellous oratory and by being the mouthpiece of Kaiserism and Junkerdom. When he said: "A state has no superior judge over itself and will make all its treaties with this tacit reservation," he prepared the way for Bethmann-Hollweg's "scrap of paper!" Of Belgium he wrote "It is not a nation, for it is mutilated by its very nature" (its neutrality). Of war, he prophesied grimly, "The living God will take care that war shall always return as a terrible medicine for the human race."

Germany's Pet Project—Berlin-to-Bagdad.

Bernhardi was but one of many military exponents of Pan-Germanism. As he is the best known of them, a few extracts will suffice to show the trend of German feeling in 1911. He said: "War in itself is a good thing. It is a biological necessity of the first importance." Of the Hague, he said: "Courts of arbitration are pernicious delusions." Of other nations he wrote: "The State is a law unto itself. Weak nations have not the same right to live as powerful and vigorous nations." Of wars of aggression he said: "The State is justified in making conquests whenever its own advantage seems to require additional territory." The Crown Prince Frederick William in 1913 capped this teaching when he wrote: "It is only by relying upon our good German sword that we can hope to conquer that place in the sun which rightly belongs to us. . . . Till the world shall come to an end, the ultimate decision must rest with the sword."

The Berlin-to-Bagdad railway was the pet project of Pan-Germanism. It was a tremendous and a daring scheme, the completion of which, if Kaiser William II had but had patience to await, might have changed the whole tenor of the world war. It is not necessary to go

into the negotiations with Turkey regarding concessions. Let it be sufficient to say that it would have controlled all the Balkan nations through their commerce, it would have made Turkey a vassal, it would have given Constantinople to Germany, it would have given the Kaiser all that he wished to take of Asia Minor, it would have dominated the Black Sea and Southern Russia, it would have tapped the railways running into Palestine and made the Kaiser—what he proclaimed himself—"The friend of friends of the Mohammedan peoples," it would have made Persia a vassal of Germany, it would have given Germany a wide Mediterranean sea-coast just across from the Suez Canal and it would have landed German armies at the Afghanistan gates of India. A place in the sun, indeed!

Germany's Policy of Frightfulness.

It was with a realization of this terrible menace that the Anzacs spilt their blood like water on the slopes of the Gallipoli Peninsula, only to be beaten back at the last. It was because of this that Allied Armies hovered ready at Saloniki. It was because of this that Bulgaria's relation to the war was so important. It was because of this that Russia's collapse was so alarming. It was because of this that England made alliance with the Arabs, and, in one of the most picturesque cavalry campaigns in human history, spent two long and weary years to struggle upwards from Egypt and from the Red Sea and from the Arabian Gulf, across stony wastes and supposedly impassable deserts, to win the last Crusade and plant the Cross in place of the Crescent on the ramparts of Jerusalem. When, later, British and Allied forces took Antioch and Bagdad, the Pan-German dream was broken.

The German psychology, however, possessed one glaring fallacy. It supposed its own spirit to be the spirit of the world. Nowhere did this spirit show itself more utterly wrong than in the policy of "frightfulness." Arguing that the German people, themselves, would be cowed by frightfulness, they proceeded on the basis that others would be cowed similarly. Thus on August 22, 1914, General von Bülow proclaimed in Liege: "It is with my consent that the commander-in-chief has ordered the whole town (Andenne) to be burned and that about one hundred persons have been shot. I bring this fact to the City of Liege so that citizens of Liege may realize the fate with which they are menaced if they adopt a similar attitude." Or in Namur: "A

German guard will take ten hostages in each street. If any outrage is committed in that street the ten hostages will be shot." Belgium only fought the harder.

Admiral von Tirpitz, speaking of the submarine policy, said: "It is only a matter of time until we bring England to her knees." The sinking of the Lusitania was made the occasion of the casting of a medal of rejoicing in Germany. But the submarine only made England fight the harder, and the Lusitania question operated powerfully in bringing America into the war.

Deeper and worse was the gospel of hate. "Gott strafe England!" (God punish England!) became the rallying cry. Lissauer's "Hymn of Hate" became Germany's national war anthem and the composer was decorated by the Kaiser. Hear the doctrine of hate: "The fire of righteous Hate is all aglow. We have but one war cry—'Gott strafe England!' Hiss it in the trenches, in the charge. You German people at home, feed this fire of Hate! You mothers, engrave this in the heart of the babe at your breast! You thousands of teachers, teach Hate. You sacred guardians of the truth, feed this sacred Hate—" and so the horrid cry of vengeance rolls on, page after page. But Hate is a two-edged weapon. Curses come home to roost.

The world-issue of Germany at the close of the war was that she was Germany, and that her people were German. The militarism of the German Empire was not something dropped down from above, it was of German origin. The concept of the German Super-man was of German begetting. The greed of Pan-Germanism was Germanic. The gospel of hate found voice and echo in German hearts. The soul of a nation is not a coat to be put on and off. At the close of the war, even as at the beginning, France was France, England was England, America was America and Germany was—Germany.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY THE UNSTABLE.

The Shadowy Holy Roman Empire—Franz Josef the Juggler—Sadowa—The Dual Monarchy, a Harlequin State and a Nation Without a Soul—The Magyars—The Teuton Whip—International Trickery—Treaty of Bucharest—Absolute Collapse From Within.

IT would be difficult to find an excuse for the existence of Austro-Hungary, that is, the Austro-Hungarian Empire as it was before the war. There was no racial reason, no linguistic reason, no strategic reason, no commercial reason, no cultural reason, no political reason. It had neither power, progress, nor respect. The "polyglot empire" and the "ramshackle empire" were its general descriptions.

Back of every bewildering business, however, there is a story, behind the craziest group of effects there must be a group of causes. The Austro-Hungarian Empire did exist, and not only existed but sent three millions of fighting men into the world war. That Austria did this under the Teuton whip is admitted, but why it joined the Central Powers and how it held its inchoate condition together as long as it did is a puzzle of absorbing interest.

Primarily, the Austrian problem was one of race divisions. There were nine several and distinct races (not peoples) inhabiting Austro-Hungary. Of these 12,000,000 were Germans, 10,000,000 Magyars, 8,500,000 Czechs, 5,000,000 Poles, 4,000,000 Ruthenians, 3,750,000 Serbians 3,250,000 Roumanians, 2,500,000 Jews and 1,250,000 Slovenes. None of these were friendly with the others at the opening of the war, none spoke the same language, none were of the same political opinion and were united only on the one plane, that of mutual distrust. There was, however, a weak religious bond, for 78 per cent. of Austria and 52 per cent. of Hungary were Roman Catholic. Austro-Hungary was considered by the Vatican as her main stronghold in Europe. This fact did much to cause irritation between the Vatican and the Quirinal, as has been shown in a foregoing chapter on Italy.

Austro-Hungary was the crumbling remains of the old Holy Roman

Empire, a shadowy and ill-named creation which had little to do with modern Rome and nothing at all to do with ancient Rome. When Franz Josef came to the throne in 1849, all unknowing that he was to reign for sixty-seven years and die during a world war, it would have taxed even a European diplomat to say what were the lands over which the young monarch was to hold sway. Some of the lands had been obtained by conquest, some by purchase, some by compromise, some by marriage, some as the lingering remnant of a feudal system, some by secret pacts. Each of these districts had its own privileges, its own customs, its own laws, its own institutions, its own nobility, its own relation to the government and often its own language.

Political Juggling of Franz Josef.

Franz Josef was the opposite of a great statesman, he was a clever politician. He was a consummate adept in the difficult art of playing one party off against the other, while satisfying neither. Only once did Franz Josef attempt a consolidation of his empire and this was by the pro-German constitution of 1860-1861. The Magyars smashed all hope of this. The war with Prussia in 1866 put Franz Josef at the mercy of Bismarck. A Saxon nobleman, Von Beust, who was a sharp enemy of Bismarck, undertook the reorganization of the empire along a line little liked by the Iron Chancellor. This reorganization was made in 1867 and continued, despite constant dissension, until the beginning of the world war in 1914. When it is remembered that Franz Josef held this scattered state together, from a mediæval stained-glass court which simply bristled with every kind of shame, crime, swindle, decadence and scandal, it is evident that history must declare him to have been a political juggler of incomparable cleverness.

First and foremost, it is to be understood that the abiding policy of the empire, since 1867, was that of uniting the two dominant races, the Germans and the Magyars, against the lesser races, Czechs, Poles, Ruthenians, etc. In order to make sure that the Germans and Magyars might not commence to squabble among themselves, the empire was divided in halves, Austria being handed over to the Germans, and Hungary to the Magyars. Franz Josef was not in any sense of the word Emperor of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. There was no such state. He was Emperor of Austria and Apostolic King of Hungary. Moreover, when in Hungary, he was no longer Emperor of Austria.

"Asia," says an ancient proverb of the city of Vienna, "begins on the Ringstrasse," the principal street of that city. There is much truth in the proverb. Hungary was not European, as the word is generally used. But then, the Magyars are not Aryans. They are neither Teuton, Latin, Slav nor Celt. They are allied to the Esths, the Finns and the Eskimo. So, in addition to the enormous difficulty of reconciling people of the same human family, Austria-Hungary had to try and bring together Orient and Occident.

In the storm of criticism that fell on Austria-Hungary during the war, both from her allies and her foes, the Magyars and the question of Hungary always met with respect. Hungary has been built up historically from a broad aristocratic basis. The nobles were still the old type of aristocrat, in the Greek derivation of the word, the rulers because they were the leaders. The Magyar noble classes were among the most cultured gentlemen of Europe. As large land-owners, they established a prosperous free peasantry. They had the most unmitigated contempt for their Austrian neighbors and regarded the whole German race as distinctly low class. Hungary was an independent, liberty-loving land. On the other hand, she was not commercial nor industrial, save in the Jewish colonies which are large. Austria-Hungary as an empire was a political nightmare, Austria was a political bedlam, but the Hungarian assembly contrasted favorably with the government of any state in Europe.

Austria-Hungary Industries Managed by Germans.

In the chapter on the Czecho-Slovak nations, emphasis has been laid on the high scale of culture in Bohemia and the very fair progress in Moravia. There, also, were to be found the industrial centers of the empire. On the other hand, the Ruthenian remained primitive and the Slovene was at a low scale of civilization. Austria-Hungary was a land of extremes.

Economically, Austria-Hungary was poor. Her per capita stock of money was down to $12.08, her foreign commerce was low, out of all proportion to her population. Though mainly an agricultural country, her methods were so archaic that, though possessing a far richer soil, her crop yield per acre was only 58 per cent. that of Germany. Except for Bohemia, there was no industry that was not German-managed, and the profits all went to Germany. Hungary, while having few industries,

still kept them in Magyar hands, just as all the railroads in Hungary were owned by the Magyar government.

In spite of all this, or because of all this, as one may decide for himself, Austria finding Germany behind her, forced the war. How that was done, the ruthless character of the ultimatum and the Bosnia incident which lay behind it, have been treated in a foregoing chapter on Servia. The action of the Jugo-Slavs has found a place in the chapter belonging to that subject, the relation of the Czecho-Slovaks, likewise. The war, therefore, was not brought about by the Czechs, not by the Southern Slavs, not by the Roumanians, not by the Jews. It follows, then, that it was the result of the war spirit of the Austro-Germans and the Magyars.

The Austro-German and the Magyar feeling was prevailingly one of hostility to Russia. Austria from first to last vehemently affirmed that Russia started the war. It was the Austrian contention that Serbia's affairs had nohing to do with Russia, that Serbia would have yielded without war if it had not been for the support of Russia, that Russia had mobilized against the Austrian border at a time when no declaration of war had been made and that in its own terms "the Serbian Kingdom was the torpedo which Russia has launched at the body of Austria."

Austria Refused Russia's Request.

In order to see Austria's position in the world war it is necessary to show her acts in relation to Russia, as well as Serbia. It has been shown how Austria served an impossible ultimatum on Serbia, at the same time giving so short a time for the reply, that it amounted to a declaration of forced annexation or war. During the 48 hours allowed for consideration Russia begged for time for her smaller Slav neighbor and was curtly refused. She then begged Austria not to cross the frontier "until we had time to arrange matters." Austria replied that "having once launched the note she could not draw back." On the following day Russia proposed an interchange of views. To this, Austria never even replied.

By now, the war between Austria and Serbia had begun. The Russian-Austrian question began to loom large. This was brought to a crisis by Germany, when on July 28 the German Imperial Chancellor excused to the British Ambassador his refusal to entertain the proposal of a conference of the powers on the ground that the quarrel between Serbia and Austria was "a purely Austrian concern, with which Rus-

sia had nothing to do." The British Ambassador pointed out, in reply, that if it were a purely Austrian concern it was something with which Germany had nothing to do.

At this point the rulers took up the dispute. The Kaiser, who had been away in Norway, on returning to Berlin, telegraphed to the Czar that he was "exerting all my influence to endeavor to make Austria-Hungary come to an open and satisfying understanding with Russia." England suggested to Germany "to suggest any form of procedure under which the idea of mediation between Austria and Russia could be applied." The German Foreign Office answered that it could not act in the matter lest pressure "should cause Austria to precipitate matters and present a *fait accompli*" (an irrevocable fact). The Austrian government, meanwhile, ignored English advances toward the localization of the war.

The Kaiser's Arrogant Order.

Austria not only mobilized but advanced to the Russian frontier. Russia, in return, was mobilizing. At the same time Russia offered to stop all military preparation if Austria would withdraw from her ultimatum the one condition which rendered Serbia a vassal. The Kaiser's reply to this was an arrogant order to demobilize on threat of war, an order which no self-respecting power could accept. No sooner had this been sent, and war between Russia and Germany been shown to be inevitable, than Austria, double-facedly, answered the Russian notes of several days before that it would be willing to discuss the terms of the Serbian ultimatum, knowing that it was then too late.

This served its purpose. But what Americans did not realize at the beginning of the war was that the peoples of Austria-Hungary were eager for war. Western Europe hardly realized that Austro-Hungarian resentment to Serbia and hatred of Russia was as a living fire, that soap-box oratory was to be seen on street and village corner and that the drowsy patriotism which was always overlaid with local squabbles suddenly became of a white heat. It will be better understood by the reader if he remembers that patriotism is a spiritual temper and that peoples who are all the time alert for local patriotism can readily be set aright for imperial patriotism.

It is so difficult, sometimes, to get the point of view of a distant country that von Scherbrand's description of the general argument may

be worth quoting. He described the impassioned tale of the average Austrian stump speaker much as follows: "That the old empire had been asleep for half a century, shamefully asleep, while down below to the southeast a cunning, boastful, malevolent dwarf had mocked them all, spat at them, challenged them a hundredfold; how it was time now to awake from inglorious sleep and to be up and doing; how this wicked dwarf, the Serb, had in his presumption at last murderously slain the man on whom Austria had built her hopes of a brighter future, of prouder days; and how to the north, another neighbor, half bear, half man, but wholly evil, had encouraged and egged on this arrogant pigmy to the last and final outrage, and how they, the men of Austria, must avenge the murder and see to it that nothing like should ever become possible again." Bands played patriotic melodies, apparently spontaneous choruses sang martial hymns.

The Fall of Przemysl.

It was all very dramatic. It is not so sure that it was all spontaneous. The joints creaked a little. Certain it was that Count Berchtold, guiding the destinies of the Dual Monarchhy as a whole and Austria in particular, and Count Tisza, the Hungarian premier, were agreed upon war. A happy-go-lucky empire of scattered peoples plunged gladly into war. More than one wise observer, however, compared the Austrian situation with the Prussian situation in 1870. These said that, just as Germany had proved the Franco-Prussian war to unify Germany, so had Austria provoked the world war to unify Austria.

Then came the "hungry spring" of 1915, when Nicholas Nicholaievitch came thundering down the Galician passes, and when Przemysl fell. That supposedly impregnable fortress was the empire's pride. When it fell, 100,000 men went into Russian captivity. Over 6,000 guns were lost. The Russians held 72 per cent. of Galicia. The following year, with the German-Russian intrigue and the treachery of Petrograd, saved Austria, and the advance of Germany into France, showing that she was not finally put out of the war by her defeat at the Marne, restored Austria's courage. The Roumanian invasion, which threatened Hungary, and the Italian invasion, which threatened Austria, bred bad blood between Austria and Hungary. The reason for the enmity arose from the fact that while the Austro-Hungarian army was Magyar, Viennese direction sent almost the whole army to the Italian front to

save Austria, and allowed Roumanian to rage, for a while, almost unchecked in Hungary. This rift in the lute was really never satisfactorily closed.

In the summer of 1918 the conditions which led to the defeat of the Austrian offensive came to a head. These were respectively, from the Austrian point of view, the defection of the Poles, the defection of the Czecho-Slovaks, the Hungaro-Roumanian resentment and the Allied promises regarding Jugo-Slavia. Besides this, the evident weakening of the Central Powers and their sure defeat with the United States on the other side of the scale, rendered the retention of the Piave impossible. None the less, Austria launched a desperate offensive, on orders from Berlin, and suffered a crushing defeat, losing, in casualties, a quarter of a million men.

Turkey and Austria Ask for Armistice.

The crash was at hand, and Austria, seeing this, reiterated the solidarity of the Dual Monarchy and on August 16, 1918, denounced the Allies' proclamation of a Czecho-Slovak nation. It may be remarked, that, in the technical sense of international precedent, Austria had the better of the argument.

The collapse of Bulgaria and the signing of an armistice on September 30, 1918, followed by the destruction of the naval base at Durazzo by Allied Fleets on October 2, 1918, was the beginning of the end. The last week of October saw a general Austrian rout. On October 31, 1918, Turkey asked for armistice on terms amounting to unconditional surrender, and there was nothing left for Austria to do but to take a similar action on November 3, 1918.

It can hardly be said, however, that when Austria-Hungary laid down her arms, she was still Austria-Hungary. On October 18 the Provisional Government of the Czecho-Slovaks, a part of the Austrian empire, declared her independence, and on November 2, the day before the armistice was closed between Austria and the Allies, the Czecho-Slovak Republic was proclaimed, with Professor Masaryk president. On October 24, the Polish National Committee proclaimed the union of all Polish territories subject to Austria, Germany and Russia, a union which found definite form in the proclamation of a Polish Republic on November 9, 1918, under President Daszynski.

Finally, the Mid-European Union signed its Declaration of Inde-

pendence in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Pa., on October 26, 1918, with official delegates of the Czecho-Slovaks, Jugo-Slavs, Uhro-Ruthenes (Ruthenians of the old empire), Ukranians, Roumanians, people of Italia Irredenta, Greeks, Lithuanians, Albanians and Jews. The Poles withdrew from the Mid-European Union a few days later on the ground that the Ukrainian Government was holding a portion of Polish territory in Galicia and maintaining troops there.

When Austria-Hungary signed the armistice terms, therefore, she was no longer in existence as an empire. All that was left to her was part of the German side of Austria and the northern or Magyar part of Hungary. The Magyars, in the early part of 1918, had shown their evident intention of breaking with Austria. It can scarcely be said, therefore, that Austria-Hungary, as an empire and kingdom, was defeated. It collapsed. The mediæval court of Vienna, like many an ancient form of life which cannot support the light, had been thrust into the sunshine of liberty. It writhed supinely and lay still. From its ashes, Phoenix-like, the new republics of Middle Europe rose.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

BULGARIA AND THE BALKAN MUDDLE.

Bulgars a Tartar Stock—Meteoric Rise—San Stefano and "Great Bulgaria"—England's Compulsion of "Little Bulgaria"—Battle of Slivnitza—Montenegro—Tearing up the Treaty of Berlin—Bulgaria a Bitter Foe to World Peace.

THERE is one primary fact in the Balkans to be remembered, and that is that Bulgaria is not a Slav state. Though speaking a language which is largely Slavic, the Bulgars are near of kin to the Turks. They are an Asiatic, non-European and un-European race. They take kindly to Mohammedanism. They are intelligent, laborious and thrifty, while, at the same time, passionate and revengeful. Of the Balkan peoples they are the most advanced and the most homogeneous. Their territorial boundaries at the opening of the world war, however, did not correlate with their racial boundaries and therein lay one of the many troubles of the Balkans.

Modern Bulgaria was one of the most extraordinary phenomena of nineteenth century history. It came into existence almost like an act of creation. Out of an obscure mass of Turko-Tartar serfs, there sprang into existence, in 1877, a vigorous, healthy, swiftly progressing nation. There is little that so angers the true Bulgarian as to be classed among the Slavs, and when Russians talked of "Pan-Slavism" and included Bulgaria therein, he fairly frothed at the mouth.

No two races could be more different. The Slav, before the war, was idealistic, easy-going, prone to dream, boastful and generous. The Bulgarian was sober, dour, practical, avaricious, laborious and dogged. "The Bulgar on his ox-cart," says a national proverb, "pursues the hare—and overtakes it." Give a people of this type a Great Idea, and add to the general stock an ability for solidarity and teamwork in pursuit of that Idea, and the materials are ready for the forging of a powerful state. Bulgaria must be reckoned with as a vital European factor.

The Bulgarian "Great Idea" begins with Constantinople. It was the desire of the Bulgar to kick the Turk out of Europe and to be,

itself, the Asiatic power holding the Dardanelles. It was the Bulgarian idea to have a Tartar Christendom. In order to do this, it was the Bulgarian Idea to reunite the whole Bulgarian race from the Black Sea to the Albanian Mountains and from the Danube to the Ægean. It was the Bulgarian Idea to scrimp, and save, and work and fight to that end, to root out Slav mischief-making among Bulgar peoples.

Bulgaria was not above planning, finally, to dominate the Slav states, but that was not a part of the Great Idea. Roumania could keep her territory if she chose, but she must give up the Tartar-inhabited shore of Dobrudja, Turkey must give up her Turkish vilayets, Bulgarian Macedonia must be restored, Bulgarian Albania must join the greater nation. Such was the Bulgarian Great Idea, of the "Greater Bulgaria" of the time preceding the Balkan Wars.

Russia and Turkey at War.

The rise of modern Bulgaria begins with Turkey's massacre of 12,000 peasants on the Bulgarian Mountains, in 1876. This stirred Europe. Gladstone wrote a famous pamphlet entitled "The Bulgarian Horrors." Serbia and Montenegro fell on Turkey. They were defeated, and the Sublime Porte was about to institute new massacres there, also, when England gave a naval warning and the Czar put a pistol to the head of Turkey with the abrupt order to conclude an armistice with Serbia within forty-eight hours, or prepare to face Russia.

In December, 1876, the powers met at Constantinople to give the Sultan some pointed advice. But the "Sick Man of Europe" was slippery. Even while the diplomats were discussing, he granted a most extraordinary constitution to the people, liberal beyond believing. No one believed it, but the Sultan used the new constitution as a basis for delay, glibly remarking that as a constitutional sovereign now, all matters must be referred to the people. When asked about Bulgaria, his ministers remarked with an air of innocence "they had never heard the word!" Under pressure, they were induced to remember that it "was a geographical term for some part of the region north of the Balkans."

On April 10, 1877, the Turks rejected the London Protocol and on April 24, 1877, Russia declared war. The Bulgarian troops proved to be of immense value and did much to bring the final victory. Fight-

ing continued all 1877 and on January 31, 1878, the Turks accepted an armistice, the war being closed by the Treaty of San Stefano, March 3, 1878.

This treaty created Bulgaria. A huge state was mapped by the Treaty of San Stefano, which gave Bulgaria all the provinces of Turkey in which the Bulgars predominated and included a Mediterranean port. Three-fifths of the Balkan Peninsula was thus made into a new state under the name of Bulgaria. But—and this was the crucial point, the new Bulgaria was regarded as owing its creation to the Czar and therefore was deemed by the Powers a Russian sphere of influence, if not, indeed, a vassal state.

The Congress of Berlin.

England, always afraid of Russia, protested vehemently. The immediate result was that England threatened Russia and sent a navy to Turkey's assistance. It needed but a breath to start war between the two nations, though one was almost wholly a sea power and the other almost wholly a land one. Bismarck, looking on, said "it was a little difficult to prophesy the result of a combat between an elephant and a whale." Russia became bellicose, and to give the Czar a hint of what he might expect, England called out her reserves and sent eight regiments of Sepoy troops of Malta. Russia climbed down and agreed to submit to the powers her reconstruction of the Balkans as provided in the Treaty of San Stefano. Thus came about the Congress of Berlin.

Russia was quite willing to attend the Congress of Berlin, with Bismarck presiding, for Bismarck had carefully allowed the Czar to be confident of Russia's friendship. Meantime, Bismarck had found an equally great diplomat in Beaconsfield, the English Jewish prime minister, and true to his policy of aiding the most powerful, he swung the German and Austrian interests at the Congress in opposition to Russia.

So far as Bulgaria was concerned, the effect was drastic. "Greater Bulgaria" became "Little Bulgaria." The huge new state was carved into three arbitrary pieces: Macedonia, Bulgaria, and Eastern Rumelia. Macedonia was handed back to Turkey, Bulgaria was made "an autonomous and tributary principality," and Eastern Rumelia, as invented, was to be an autonomous province under the political and military rule

of Turkey, but with a Christian governor. This latter state was plain nonsense.

Bulgaria, once constituted, however, at once grew dangerous. Austrian diplomats, who knew the Bulgars, preferred that the pride of the new nation should be taken down by some one other than themselves. They chose Serbia as the cat to pull their chestnuts out of the fire. Egged on by Austria, Serbia declared war on Bulgaria. The two armies met at Slivnitza, and, to the Serbian surprise, instead of running away, the Bulgars fought like heroes. The battle was desperate and lasted three days and, in the end, the Serbian forces were cut to pieces. Bulgaria would have vanquished and taken Serbia but again the powers —always interrupting in the Balkans—stepped in. Austria threatened to aid Serbia, and warned the Bulgars that if they did not stop, they would have to face the whole Austrian Empire. This was manifestly unfair. Bulgaria gained nothing from Serbia, but in 1886 she did take the right of annexing Eastern Rumelia and there was no one to stop her.

For ten years there was comparative peace while a really great minister, Stambulov, built railroads, taught modern agriculture, established schools, developed industry and generally proceeded to bring Bulgaria into line with the modern world. In true Balkan fashion, having made enemies, he was assassinated in 1895. The fact that King Ferdinand was a German prince, was generally regarded as being the reason why he wanted a true Bulgarian leader out of the way. He wanted to deliver Bulgaria, bound hand and foot, to Germany.

Troubles in the Balkans.

In a previous chapter it has been shown that Austria annexed Bosnia, without rhyme or reason, on October 7, 1908. But while there was no reason, there were precedent events connected with it. On July 28, 1908, Abdul Hamid, much against his will, admitted the "Young Turk" constitution. This will be explained in the chapter on Turkey. But, on October 5, 1908, the German Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria took unto himself the title of "Tsar" and proclaimed the entire independence of Bulgaria from Turkey. Austria's seizure of Bosnia, was, in a measure, a Balkan retort.

The war of Tripoli, dealt with hereinbefore both in the chapter on alliances and in the chapter on Italy, broke on September 29, 1911. From the Bulgarian point of view, its main importance was that it

was a defeat for the "Young Turks." Albania revolted in the spring of 1912, as soon as the snow was off the mountains. The garrison of Monastir joined the insurgents. Turkey was in so entangled a state that the opportunity for knifing her was too good to lose. The Balkan States struck home for Macedonia.

Macedonia is the racial cross-roads where all peoples of the Balkans meet. Its people were famous in history, being the Thracian armies which, under Alexander the Great, conquered the world. During the power of ancient Greece, Macedonia became Greek, during the Roman Empire, its inhabitants became Latinized, the great Slav invasions of the sixth and seventh centuries gave it a Slavic cast and when the Ottoman Empire brought the Turk to the gates of Vienna, Macedonia became Turkish in character as well as name.

Alliance of Balkan States With Greece.

Geographically speaking, the vilayets of Saloniki, Monastir and Kossovo represented Macedonia at the opening of the world war. Of Macedonia, the part which is mainly Serbian in character had an area of 15,000 square miles, that of Greek ascendancy, 14,000 square miles, that of Bulgarian, 7,000 square miles. If these three be averaged Serbian Macedonia, Bulgarian Macedonia and Greek Macedonia are each as large as Belgium. One does not speak of small territories when dealing with the Balkans. It is a common mistake to talk about the "small states of the Balkans." As a matter of fact, they are large.

So far as can be determined, the type-inhabitants of early Macedonia, the Thracians—whoever they may have been—must have closely resembled that puzzling folk of the Balkans, who are variously known as the Vlachs, Wallachs, Kutzovlachs or Meglenians. The United States Bureau of Immigration has adopted the name Wallachs for this people. They speak a dialect of Roumanian.

In 1912 the apparently impossible happened. The Balkan States, mutually hostile and enemies to the knife, formed an alliance, with each other and with Greece, undoubtedly managed by the ablest diplomat that the southeast of Europe had produced in many a decade, Venizelos, prime minister of Greece.

The Concert of Europe told the Balkan Alliance to keep quiet. Again the impossible happened. The Balkan Alliance politely told the great powers to mind their own business and plunged into the war.

Germany, confident that the Turkish Army with German officers and German artillery would whip the Balkan Alliance, allowed the matter to proceed. About 500,000 men on each side took the field. Christian fanaticism—though split into several parties—struck at Moslem fanaticism and triumphed. French artillery, in the hands of Serbians and Bulgarians, proved better than German. Turkey, divided with herself, could only mobilize one-third of her expected strength. The war ended by the victory of the Montenegrins over the Turks by the siege of Scutari, on April 22, 1913.

At this astounding result the Powers could keep away no longer. In a foregoing chapter on Serbia, it has been shown how the powers tried to intervene but were unable to prevent the outbreak of war between Serbia and Bulgaria on June 29, 1913, forced by a Bulgar attack (unjustifiable from a military point of view) before war had been declared. The powers, now, were afraid to intervene, for intervention meant world war. Russia, Germany and Austria would have supported Bulgaria; France, England and Italy would have supported Serbia.

The Peace of Bucharest.

Like an unexpected ghost, Roumania strode down from the north. She had waited until the Bulgarians were at hand-grips with their foes in the south and now appeared in the Bulgar's rear. The Bulgarians were hopelessly overpowered and King Ferdinand could do nothing but give up the struggle. At the moment of her pride, the cup of Bulgaria was snatched from her lips by Roumania. The war was ended by the Peace of Bucharest.

This so-called "Peace" has been analyzed earlier in this book, but from the Bulgarian point of view it may be pointed out that its net result was that Roumania, Serbia, Montenegro and Greece had made large gains, but Bulgaria had lost to Roumania a piece of territory more valuable and more populated than the bare strip which the powers gave her from the partition of Turkey. The Peace of Bucharest left four powers dissatisfied: Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey. That last sentence is of the highest and most poignant importance. It was precisely those four nations, Germany, Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey, who forced upon the world the greatest war in human history. They only waited eleven and a half months to do so.

The caldron of war had spread from the Balkans to the whole of Europe. Bulgaria's position was complicated. She had no ethnic relations with either side. Her sentiments, however, were toward Germany and Turkey and against Serbia and the Allies. The real question to Bulgaria, however, was this: Had she a greater chance of gaining Macedonia and the Dobrudja for herself by remaining neutral or by going into the war; and, in the event of entering the war, which side would give her better terms?

Bulgaria commenced to dicker with the Allies, but demanded that Serbian troops evacuate Macedonia. This the Allies could not do under their agreement with Serbia. Germany, on the other hand, being against Serbia, agreed to give Macedonia to Bulgaria if she would win it with the sword. Then, in the autumn of 1915, the Austro-German drive against Serbia began. That forced Bulgaria's hand. Either she must join the Allies—which meant joining Serbia, an impossible action in view of the Allies' Macedonian promise to Serbia, or she must join the Central Powers. On October 14, 1915, Bulgaria declared war against Serbia, completing in fact the understood alliance which had existed since the beginning of the war, by which German troops had been allowed to pass through Bulgaria to the aid of Turkey.

The Doom of Serbia.

This put Serbia out of the war as a political unit. When the Teuton and Bulgar armies struck Serbia at the same time, she was doomed. By the spring of 1916, Bulgarian troops occupied the greater part of Macedonia. Meanwhile the Allied armies had occupied the port of Saloniki in Greek Macedonia, and in the autumn of 1916 began an offensive which led to the taking of Monastir, in the early days of December. The whole of the year 1917 was a deadlock, largely due to the action of Greece, a question which will be dealt with in a separate chapter.

Came next the beginning of those black and bloody days in Russia which, from the spring of 1917 until the end of the war—and after—were to stain the reputation of Russia with crime and treachery unimagined and were to spread an unchecked Reign of Terror from the Caucasus to the frozen waters of the Arctic Ocean.

It was not until 1918 that the Allies dared to move upon Bulgaria, for Roumania was a broken reed on which to lean and ever and always

the rabidly pro-German Constantine, King of Greece, might obey his brother-in-law, the Kaiser, and launch a Greek army in the rear of the Allied forces at Saloniki. When, however, Venizelos got control and the advance was possible, it took but a very short while, exactly two weeks, before Bulgaria was brought to a state of collapse. In that time the Bulgarians had been split into two helpless segments, the Bulgarian government had been compelled to surrender and ask for a separate peace, King Ferdinand (a German Prince) had abdicated in favor of his son Boris, and Turkey was isolated from the Central Powers. The collapse of Bulgaria compelled the collapse of Turkey, and the shattering of Germany's eastern alliances dissolved into thin vapor the dream of Pan-Germanism. The Berlin-to-Bagdad railway scheme, as a Teuton project, was no more.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

ORIENTAL TURKEY AND THE NEAR EAST.

The Terrible Importance of Constantinople and the Dardanelles—Asia Minor and the Armenians—Syria and the Holy Land—Mesopotamia, the Garden of Eden—The Arab Tribes and the Menace of Islam—Persia, the England-Russia Gage of War.

THE Turk was the Orient in Europe. A Turkish gentleman was an almost perfect friend, a Turkish ruler was an unmentionable atrocity. A Turkish soldier was a gallant and chivalrous foe, Turkish hordes of Bashi-Bazouks have committed barbarities only to be equalled by those committed by Germany in Belgium. In diplomatic guile the Turk had few equals, but it would tax omniscience to know what he meant. It is hard for the Western nations to understand the Orient but it seemed harder for the Oriental nations to understand the West. The minds of the Turk and the European do not think on the same planes.

During the Middle Ages, the Turk was Europe's greatest menace. The history of the last three centuries has witnessed the steady and continual weakening of the Ottoman Empire. It was in 1853 that Czar Nicholas I uttered a saying which became a diplomatic password. "Turkey," he said, "is in a critical state. The country seems falling to pieces. We have on our hands a sick man, a very sick man. It will be a great misfortune if he should slip away from us before the necessary arrangements are made." The rest of Turkey's history, until the outbreak of the world war, was the carving up among the powers and the Balkan peoples of the possessions of the "Sick Man of Europe."

Abdul Hamid II, whose name became a synonym for all that was ignorant, wanton, rapacious and vile, came to the throne in 1876. From that date until 1908 Turkey was ruled exactly as though it were the ninth century rather than the nineteenth. Electricity was forbidden because the word "dynamo" sounded like "dynamite" and chemistry was forbidden because the symbol H_2O (water) was regarded as a treasonable suggestion that H_2, or Hamid II, was worth O or nothing. Little did the Turks reck that these letters stood for "hydrogen" and "oxygen."

In 1888 William II of Germany came to the throne. The very next year the Kaiser selected the Sultan of Turkey as the only great European monarch worthy of an official visit from him. It may be a matter of speculation as to what the Kaiser and the Sultan agreed, it is a matter of history what the Sultan, immediately after the Kaiser's visit, did. He launched upon the Armenians the most appalling series of massacres known to Europe for half-a-dozen centuries.

The Armenian question was one of the issues in the world war. The Armenians are a mixed race. In their mountain region dwelt a primitive non-Aryan race, conquered in the early centuries of the Christian era and earlier by Aryans closely allied to certain races in Hindustan. They became ardent Christians, and Armenia remained as a Christian island in the midst of Mohammedan rule. With a rich language and a good literature of their own, with independent mountain characters, under the isolated conditions, they were forced to become either struggling peasants or shrewd merchants. Oppression and misrule have been their portion for ten centuries. Throughout it all, they have maintained a love for liberty and a national spirit of independence which is marvellous to witness.

Massacres of Armenians by Turks.

The total number of practically pure Armenians is about 1,250,000 and the land wherein Armenians predominate is about 80,000 square miles, or three times as large as Switzerland, between which two countries there are numerous strong resemblances. It is a rich and valuable country, full of mineral resources, but quite undeveloped. This latter fact may explain the Kaiser's interest in Turkey and the Sultan's massacres as an excuse for breaking down by armed force the independent spirit of Armenia.

For three years the Armenian massacres continued. Over 70,000 Armenians were put to death because they were Christians. The Kurds were goaded to aid in the demon work. Village after village blazed. Orders were sent that women and children especially should be killed. The English people fumed and prepared to step in to stop the outrages, but the prime minister, Lord Salisbury, was neither a noble Gladstone nor an astute Disraeli. He kept one eye on Russia, another on Germany and sent mild protests to the Sultan, which Abdul Hamid received with profound submission and Oriental flattery—and threw into the waste-

paper basket. Berlin's ambassador made daily visits to the Sultan's palace and the massacres went on.

In 1888 the Kaiser made another visit to Abdul Hamid, "his brother," as he called him. It is not polite to state what other people called him. The Kaiser then went on to Jerusalem. He went scarcely as a crusader, he took a Cook's tourist ticket! A contemporary comment of the trip was that "The Kaiser changed his religion as often as he did his uniforms." In that same year, in Damascus, the Kaiser announced Germany's policy in the east in the following words: "His Majesty, Sultan Abdul Hamid, and the three hundred million Mohammedans who reverence him as Caliph, may rest assured at all times that the German Emperor is their friend." England and France, co-keepers of the Suez Canal, noted this remark and kept it in mind.

Revolution of the "Young Turks."

Even Turkey, however, could not stay the progress of time. Liberty is a stronger force in the world than even "the Red Sultan" or "The Great Assassin," or Abdul Hamid under any of his picturesque titles. Between 1906 and 1908, the constitutional party in Turkey, known as the "Young Turks," was gradually, though secretly, growing in power. The powerful Third Army Corps of the Turkish Army, ill-paid and discontented, was stationed at Saloniki. Suddenly, in July, 1908, the Young Turks with the Third (and a few days later, the Second) Army Corps at their backs marched on Constantinople.

Abdul Hamid was taken unawares. The Sick Man of Europe, however, was fully possessed of Oriental wiles. Overnight he changed his opinions, established a liberal constitution and made the "Young Turk" movement of no value aggressively, for all that they wanted was granted before they had a chance to ask it. Dervishes embraced Jewish rabbis and Christian priests in the street. It seemed like the millennium.

"The Spider of Constantinople," to use another of Abdul's many names, was only craftily biding his time. On April 13, 1909, a counter-revolution broke out, the minister of justice was murdered and the "Young Turk" leaders fled. It was the last flash of the old days. The new regime lasted only twelve days. The Young Turks got the army together again and entered Constantinople. Abdul appealed to Berlin.

At this point Germany proceeded to double-cross Abdul Hamid,

"my brother." The German Ambassador was bidden to point out that Germany was an ally of Turkey, but not necessarily of the Sultan. "Our alliance with Turkey is not a sentimental one," Chancellor von Buelow said tersely.

The Young Turks promptly hanged forty of the leaders of the counter-revolution and received the pious opinion of the Sheikh-ul-Islam (the Mohammedan Pope) that Abdul was unworthy to be Sultan. Mohammed V was crowned and reigned in his stead.

There was one weakness in the "Young Turk" party. That was, that they were still Turks. They copied Prussian methods and used them for Oriental ideas. The confusion was worse than before. Under the alleged ideal of constitutional principles, they insisted on the Ottomanization of all subject peoples, Armenians included. The massacres recommenced. Then came the defeat of Turkey in the Balkan Wars. The Peace of Bucharest, ten months before the Serajevo incident, found Turkey more subjugated and therefore more savage than ever.

Closing of the Dardanelles by Germany.

What, then, brought Turkey into the war? The answer is short, if not sweet—Germany! It began with the closing of the Dardanelles. In such a medley of affairs as Turkish diplomacy presents it is valuable to have official information. There is the best. The United States Ambassador to Turkey, Henry Morgenthau, has written of that famous afternoon when Germany, in the name of Turkey, closed the Dardanelles.

"The Grand Vizier came out in answer to my request," wrote the American Ambassador. "He presented a pitiable sight. His face was blanched and he was trembling from head to foot. When I asked him whether the news was true that the Dardanelles had been closed, he stammered that it was. 'You know this means war!' I said, and warned him that an American vessel, laden with stores for the Embassy was waiting to come in. The Grand Vizier excused himself and sent Djavid Bey, the Minister of Finance, out in his place. Djavid showed that the Cabinet knew nothing of the matter. He told me how it happened.

"A Turkish torpedo boat had passed through the Dardanelles and attempted to enter the Ægean Sea. The British warships stationed outside hailed the ship, and found there were German sailors on board. The English Admiral at once ordered the torpedo boat to go back. This,

under the circumstances (for it was after the declaration of war), he had the right to do.

"Weber Pasha, the German General who was then in charge of the fortifications, did not consult the Turks, but immediately gave order to close the strait. Wangenheim (the German Ambassador) had already boasted to me that the Dardanelles could be closed in thirty minutes, and the Germans now made good his word. Down went the mines and the nets; the lights in the lighthouses were extinguished, signals were put up notifying all ships that there was no thoroughfare; and this deed, the most high-handed which the Germans had yet committed, was done.

"And here I found these Turkish statesmen, who alone had authority over this indispensable strip of water, trembling and stammering with fear, running hither and yon like a lot of frightened rabbits, appalled at the enormity of the German act, yet apparently powerless to take any decisive action. I certainly had a graphic picture of the extremities to which Teutonic bullying had reduced the present rulers of the Turkish Empire. And, at the same moment, before my mind rose the figure of the Sultan, whose signature was essential to close legally these waters, quietly dozing at his palace, entirely oblivious of the whole transaction." The Dardanelles had become a German strait.

The Strategic Position of Constantinople.

"Constantinople," says Stoddard, "is the most significant city on earth. Strategically, it is the world's most important capital. Situated at the key-point of the salt water river joining two seas and sundering two continents, it serves at one and the same time as a toll-gate between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, and as bridge between Europe and Asia." It is so all-important, so vital, that it is impossible to conceive a condition when it will not be hungrily desired by each and every one of the first-class powers of the world, or when its possession by a first-class power would not evoke the jealousy of all the others. Constantinople, by reason of its strategical position, can never escape the fate of being a world problem.

It happens in events of world magnitude, sometimes, that those forces which seemed potent for greatest evil prove ineffective, while those which seem to have little importance become great issues. It is certain that Bethmann-Hollweg never expected his "scrap of paper"

phrase to become a dominant factor of world thought concerning the war. It is no less certain that no one could have supposed a "Holy War" proclamation to 300,000,000 Mohammedans to fall as flat as a squashed paper bag.

On November 13, 1914, the Sultan of Turkey, as Caliph, ordered a Jehad or Holy War, and the Sheikh-ul-Islam issued the Fetwa or declaration. It ran, in part, as follows: "(1) If lands of Islam are subjected to attack by enemies, must, in that case, young and old, in all parts of the earth inhabited by Mohammedans, take part in the Holy War? Yes! (2) . . . Is it necessary that all Mohammedans who live in enemy countries shall rise against their government and take part in the Holy War? Yes! (This was for India's benefit.) (3) Will all those who refuse to rise . . . be punished? Yes! (4) Will Mohammedans who live in lands of the enemy and who are forced to fight as soldiers against Islam be regarded as murderers and punished with the fires of Hell? Yes!" And nothing resulted. Mohammedans all over the world knew that this was a Jehad dictated by Germany, a Christian power, and they distrusted every word and every move.

Geography of Asia Minor.

The story of the Gallipolis peninsula is a part of the history of the war, and is dealt with elsewhere in this book. Likewise, so is the story of the Turkish campaign in the Caucasus and the great battles of Erzerum. But the strategic and political importance of Asia Minor demands a word.

Asia Minor is the same size as Germany. Its population is approximately 12,000,000, of whom three-quarters are Turks. It is a huge peninsula controlling the Black Sea, the Dardanelles and the Mediterranean. It is the highway to the east. It has a wide variety of soil and climate, with some excessively rich sections. Its mountain rim is fabulously stocked with metals and minerals. Gold, silver, copper, lead, tin, iron and coal are in abundance.

Like a vast isthmus between the Indian Ocean and the Mediterranean, interposes the desert of Arabia. From a line of latitude drawn east from Suez, Arabia is like a triangle, with the apex pointing into the mainland edge of Asia Minor. The base line of this triangle is desert. The western side is Syria, including Palestine or the Holy Land; the eastern side of the triangle is Mesopotamia, generally re-

garded as the region where ancient writers believed the Garden of Eden to have been, and through which flow the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, when Nineveh and Babylon once displayed their glories. Bagdad is in Mesopotamia, on the Tigris.

Syria is of the highest strategical importance. It is the main line of communication between Africa and Asia. It is a poor land, thinly populated. It is peopled entirely by Arabs, with Turkish officials and a few small Turkish garrisons. Strategically, it is all-important to England, and falling into English hands, during the war, it rendered Egypt unassailable. France, however, had a strong claim on Syria, especially to the north, railway concessions were in French hands, and a vast amount of beneficent educational work was done by French schools in Syria before the war. Racially, Syria is a part of the Pan-Arabian Idea, which, to a large extent, was supported by England during the war, when she made an alliance with the Arabs. It was by means of this alliance that she drove the Turkish garrisons out of Syria, and inflicted so crushing a defeat upon the Turkish armies under Teuton leadership that the German officers left their troops and fled.

Description of Mesopotamia.

Mesopotamia is one of the most fertile valleys in the world. The Assyrian and Babylonian Empires centered there. Again, in the days of Haroun-al-Raschid (of whom the Arabian Nights Entertainments tells) and the later Caliphs of Bagdad, it was the center of an Empire which reached clear from the borders of India across Egypt, embracing all of northern Africa and half of Spain. The Saracens and the Moors were but names of phases of these great Caliphate empires. Turkish invasion and government ruined the land and have kept it in poverty for five centuries. Fertile Mesopotamia, with a part of the irrigable desert, is about the same size as France. Its population is approximately 2,000,000, with a little more than one-half Arabs. There are Kurds in the north, and Persians around Bagdad. The Turks hold the towns by officialdom and small garrisons but they have not dared to try to supersede the authority of the sheiks of the wandering tribes. Strategically, Mesopotamia controls the Arabian Gulf, a weak point in England's armor with regard to India.

Arabia, for centuries nominally under Turkish rule, became independent during the world war. In November, 1916, the Grand Sheereef

of Mecca, under British support, declared himself Sultan of Arabia. In size, Arabia is one-third the size of the United States or twice as large as France, Germany and Austria-Hungary put together. Aside from the possession of Aden, a British protectorate both before and after the war, Arabia has little political or strategical importance. As containing the sacred shrines of Mohammedanism, Mecca and Medina, it is of considerable diplomatic importance in the handling of Islamic affairs. Economically it is so poor a land as to be a liability rather than an asset to any European power. Culturally it is solidly Arabian, and proud of the wonderful civilization and culture which the Arabs possessed during the caliphates.

Persia is the easternmost of the countries which come under the generic name of the Near East. During the war it was a battleground of minor civil war, which, however, hardly reached the point of being regarded as a world issue. In size it is larger than France, Holland, Belgium, Germany and Austria-Hungary together, but its population is only 10,000,000.

Great Britain Gains Control of the Near East.

Strategically, the Persian question was a Russian-English problem. This became complicated before the war by a sharp conflict between the British trade monopoly. In November, 1915, under German influence, the legislature ceased to operate. In 1916 and 1917 civil war continued. On January 30, 1908, the Anglo-Russian agreement was formally denounced by the Bolshevist government of Russia and on May 2, 1918, the Persian government sided with the Bolshevists. In July, 1918, the Persian authorities began to feel the heavy hand of England, and when the war closed British overlordship was practically re-established. The subject is somewhat distant to demand much space, but the main issue lies in the internal conditions. The cultured Persians, though nominally dominant, are unable to make head against the lawless and warlike Turkomans, who are more susceptible to Turkish and German interests.

The close of the war found British power in the Near East multiplied a thousandfold. The collapse of Turkey had put the Dardanelles in Allied hands, and Britain held the naval sway among the powers; the Holy Land had been captured in a wonderful campaign and General Allenby, the British general, had won encomiums from the whole world,

Christian and Mohammedan, for his administration of affairs in Jerusalem; France and England had taken Syria; the Armenians always looked to England for support and always found a friend there, except during the Salisbury regime; Mesopotamia had fallen into British hands, and Bagdad was occupied; Arabia had become an independent sultanate under British protection; and the collapse of Russia weakened Muscovite pressure in Persia. It would not be overstating the situation to say that at the close of the world war Britain had gained control of the Near East.

CHAPTER XL.

NEUTRAL AND SEA-SAW NATIONS.

Military, Economic and Political Conditions of Nations Who Either Stayed Completely Out of the War, or Who, at One Time or Another, Were Secretly or Actively Allied to Both Sides—Their Moral Effect on the Respective Belligerents.

THERE were three countries which, throughout the war, were a source of heart-burnings to both sides. These were Russia, Roumania and Greece. In all three cases one of the main factors was the same —the presence of a Teutonic prince on the throne, with a Teutonic wife. The Romanoff dynasty of Russia, or as it is more correctly termed, the Holstein-Gottorp-Romanoff dynasty, began in 1762 when the son of Prince Charles Frederick of Holstein married Anna, daughter of Peter the Great (of the old Romanoff family), and their son Peter III came to the throne. Czar Nicholas II, who was on the Russian throne when the war broke out, married Princess Alix of Hesse, a German princess, allied to the Hanoverian dynasty of England.

King Ferdinand of Roumania was the nephew of Prince Carol, a Hohenzollern, who took the throne when the Roumanians deposed their native prince. He also had a German princess to wife, Marie, daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. King Constantine of Greece was related directly to the Kaiser, came from the Schleswig-Holstein-Glucksburg family, was educated in a German military school and married the sister of the Kaiser. Thus a Slav empire, a Latin Kingdom and a Greek Kingdom were ruled by German princes.

The reason of this is tied up with a highly curious position in European politics, a position rarely understood by American statesmen. This is the necessity of working out, to the last degree, the marriages and inter-marriages of royal houses. A European diplomat must have his "Almanach de Gotha" at his fingers' ends.

According to a prevalent, almost universal, custom in European royalty, a royal personagge may only marry another person of royal blood. If he marries a commoner it becomes what is known as a

morganatic marriage, legitimate and sacred, but annulling the rights of dynasties in Europe, so, at the time of the formation of the German Empire, the highly ingenious idea was conceived of allowing all the small duchies and principalities to continue to exist nominally. The effect of this was to create, or rather to continue, a vast number of German royal houses.

Many royal stocks—it might be a little invidious to name them—possess diseased blood, and any student of European history will be struck with the number of defectives (the Kaiser has a congenitally withered arm), idiots, degenerates and eccentrics to be found in royal families. The heir to a throne, looking about him for a bride, would probably have no reasonable choice among dynasties of the first order. Either there would be no one of suitable age, or the lady herself might not possess those qualifications which would suggest an heir and the continuation of a dynasty. German princesses, however, would be as thick as blackberries on a bush, and since there was little need of interbreeding in Germany, owing to the score or more of "royal" families, the stock had remained tolerably healthy. Hence the young prince would find a German bride, and German court influence would spring anew in a fresh field.

The German Marriage Octopus.

This is sufficiently important to look at a little closer. In Austria-Hungary, the Hapsburgs were a German family; in Belgium, the King was German, a Saxe-Coburg, and his wife was a Bavarian; in Bulgaria, Ferdinand was a Saxe-Coburg and his second wife a German Princess of Reuss; in Denmark, the King was from Schleswig-Holstein, and he married a German Princess of Mecklenburg; in England, the King was of the House of Hanover, his mother was of the German house reigning in Denmark, and he married a daughter of the Duke of Teck; in Germany, the Emperor was a Hohenzollern and married a Schleswig-Holstein Princess; Greece has been shown above, German on both sides; Italy had no German ruler, at least not for several centuries back and the King of Italy married a Montenegrin Princess; Montenegro had a Montenegrin King and Queen; in Holland, Queen Wilhelmina was of a German family and married a German Prince of Mecklenburg-Schwerin; in Norway, the King was of the German house ruling in Denmark and married a Princess of the house of Hanover, ruling in England;

Portugal had recently become a republic, its last King was of the partly German house of Braganza-Coburg; Roumania has been given above, German on both sides; Russia also named above, German on both sides; Serbia a Serbian King, who married a Montenegrin Princess; in Spain, the King was the daughter of an Austrian Princess and married an English Princess of the house of Hanover; in Sweden, the King was of partly French descent, and married a German Princess of Baden; leaving, of all the monarchies of Europe, only Italy, Serbia and Montenegro without either a German King or Queen, or both. The German marriage octopus is the explanation of many of the curious diplomatic entanglements of the war.

Rulers Not True to Their Countries.

In a succeeding chapter, the treachery of the royal house of Russia to the Allies is traced, but, viewed in the general light of Russia as an ally, it may be said that the course of the whole war was changed by the defection of the great Slav Empire. Germany's audacity in being willing to face France, England and Russia at the same time was better understood when it was realized how closely knit was the court intrigue between Berlin and Petrograd. The mere fact that an undermined Russia, under Nicholas Nicholaievitch, and later, under Brussilov, was able to act as a powerful steamroller over Austria, only went to show how quickly the Central Powers would have been overwhelmed had Russia's rulers been true to Russia, instead of to their relatives. In a sense, of course, they could not be. German Princes and Princesses were trained for that special purpose—to betray the thrones of Europe to Germany.

Roumania was delivered to the enemy likewise, and, as is shown in a succeeding chapter, the King also was forced to abdicate. In the case of Greece, the King allowed the whole country to be plunged in civil war until the Allies compelled him to withdraw, taking his German Queen with him. The military result of this was that neither Roumania nor Greece could be counted on as Allies, however pro-Ally the peoples of the countries might be.

To a greater or lesser extent the same was true of all the nations of Northern Europe, which were not only inter-related by marriage to Germany, but were inter-related by commerce. Norway and Sweden, Denmark and Holland were neutral, truly, but in two of the cases the

sympathies were definitely pro-German, Denmark was afraid to move, and only Norway was pro-Ally, largely, again, because the King of England was married to an English Princess, albeit Hanoverian. There, again, the marriage question played its part.

Spain and Portugal, however, played an entirely different role in the world war. The Iberian peninsula, like the Scandinavian peninsula, consisted of two countries, one small and facing the Atlantic Ocean, one large and facing an inland sea. The coast peoples were maritime, progressive and pro-Ally; the inland peoples were more agricultural, reactionary and pro-German.

Portugal, at the opening of the war, was a republic. It had been an independent monarchy for seven centuries. Ever since the Middle Ages, Portugal and England had maintained a close alliance, due, not a little, to their mutual antagonism to Spain. The Methuen Treaty of 1703 was Portugal's barrier against absorption by Spain, Portugal's constant fear. In the Spanish-American War, this English Alliance was greatly prized by Portugal.

German Overtures to Spain.

From the very beginning of the war, Portugal rendered valuable aid to the Allies in the African and Asiatic colonies. The Allies responded by convoying supplies and provisions. It was not until 1916 that Portugal entered the war, and then it officially did so, not as a power against the Central Powers, but as England's ally. The final rupture with the German Government was not so much a declaration of war as the declaration that a state of war was in existence. In 1916, 1917 and 1918 Portugal sent troops to the western front, where they acquitted themselves with remarkable gallantry.

The Spanish-American War had drilled into Spain so deep a distrust of her officials, her leaders, her army and her navy, that the outbreak of the world war was signalized in the once great Castilian Empire by as universal a protest for neutrality as was possible in that politically disrupted country. Teuton propaganda promptly proceeded to hold out to Spanish ambition the annexation of Morocco from France, the recovery of Gibraltar from England and the absorption of Portugal.

These were glittering hopes and the Carlist party was ready to snatch the baubles so temptingly held out. The irreconcilable political cabals of Spain, however, forbade united action. If Spain were to enter

the war at all, it could not be by a strong national feeling. That would have to be built up, little by little. The very strong Republican-Socialists were pro-Ally, and the famous Francisco Ferrer case had warned the Spanish Government how dangerous it was to play with the Socialist fire.

During the first two or three months of the war, however, one very potent fact loomed up on the horizon. This was the blockade of the German fleet. Now, for Spanish purposes, a strong German-Austrian fleet was a prime necessity, for Spain was not connected with Germany by any contiguous territory. France lay between. Spanish influence would be mainly valuable to Germany on the Mediterranean.

Then came Italy's entrance into the war. That ended all chance for Spain. It was necessary not only to be neutral but to keep her pro-Germanism down. The British Navy was a serious enough menace, the French Navy, at home, was worse, but the French-Italian naval combination in the Mediterranean made Spain's position hopeless. She had not a single Super-Dreadnought, only three Dreadnoughts with 12-inch guns and not one battle cruiser. With a corrupt political system, a country split into factions and the national spirit outwardly boastful, but inwardly despairing, the proud Don was forced to inaction. In no sense and in no part did Spain count in the world war.

Germany's Vanity and Purse Destroyed.

So far as the South American and Central American republics were concerned, together with a number of other smaller countries, their effect on the war was negligible. Their effect on the morale of the war, however, was not. As the world war drew to its close and nation after nation joined the cause of the Allies in protest against the ruthless savagery of German warfare, the atrocities in Belgium, the destruction of art treasures, the sinking of neutral merchantmen, with all hands on board, the fomenting of Armenian massacres and the like, Germany began to realize not only that the war was lost, not only that her military prestige was lost, but that the name of Germany had been befouled before the whole world.

Two things were dear to the heart of Germany, her vanity and her purse. Her vanity in her strutting militarism, in her boastful conjuring with the German "Gott," in her Pan-Germanic ideal, and her Super-man, was pricked by French, Belgian, English, Italian and Amer-

ican bayonets. It was blown to pieces by hand grenades. The Marne, Ypres, the Piave and Chateau Thierry smashed upon that vanity and trod it down.

The second idol of Germany, her purse, was attacked by the other nations who took no part in the actual fighting. The markets of the world slipped away, bit by bit. Capitals which had looked upon German bankers as their financial leaders, began to wonder what was the value of the German mark. Countries which had given valuable concessions to German capitalists began to wonder where any German would be able to find capital after the war was over.

Therein lay the importance of the alliance of the non-fighting nations. Modern life is built upon modern trade, and the close of the war saw the world aligned against a nation which had declared a bond to be but a "scrap of paper," and had flown in defiance of civilization and common sense. World commerce might have pardoned Germany for being either knave or fool, she could never condone her for having been both.

CHAPTER XLI.

BLIND RUSSIA, MISUNDERSTANDING AND MISUNDERSTOOD.

Czar and Zemstvo—Moujik and Merchant—Trans-Siberian Railway—Japanese Checkmate—German Infiltration—Court Intrigue—Betrayal—Three-Headed Revolution—Shame of Brest-Litovsk—Ukraine—Bolshevism—Sanity of Murman and Siberia.

THAT form of hysteria which Andreyev called "the red laughter of war" was as curious a phenomenon of Russia during the early years of the great conflict, as the revolutionary hysteria of Bolshevism was a phenomenon of world amazement towards its close. These two involved issues become all the more complicated when it is seen that the crimes of treachery and anarchy which stamped Russia during the four years of the war did not spring from her vices, but from her virtues. Paradoxical though it may seem, Russia's faults sprang from too good a heart.

In many cases, the relations of the several nations to the world issues raised by the war were the result of former alliances or historical adjustments of territory. There was practically nothing of the kind in the case of Russia. Her cause of entrance into the war was as simple as that of France, or perhaps, England. She entered the war to protect her Slav "little brother" Serbia, an action necessitated by Germany's support of Austria's aggressive ultimatum.

The puzzle of Russia, and it must be admitted at the outset that it was one of the most intricate problems throughout the whole war, was an internal one. On which side was Russia, at any given time? Was the Czar betraying her? Was the Czar honest and only his counsellors treacherous? What part did the Czarina play? What was the meaning of the retirement of Nicholas Nicholaievitch? How did it happen that the Zemstvos, which started the revolution that overthrew the war, were the backbone of the army supply during the imperial regime? What were the policies of all these different revolutionary parties? How did it come about that the main and first revolution was bloodless, and that anarchy raised his wild-haired head afterwards? Was Bolshevism financed by Germany, and, if so, why did it overthrow

German interests in Russia? Such, and a thousand other questions, rise to the mind at once when thinking of Russia's part in the war.

There were five stages through which Russia passed during the war. These were (1) Russia with the Allies, (2) Russia under process of imperial betrayal, (3) Revolutionary Russia, (4) Bolshevist Russia and (5) Divided Russia. Each of these periods overlapped, both in place and time, so that sections of Russia, at one and the same time, might be in any one of these five stages. The Russian problem, as has been said, was an internal one, and her essential relations to the world-issues of the war were two-fold: first, her defection from the Allies; and, second, her cradling of Bolshevism. It will therefore be best to give a clear idea of the mental soil from which these two actions grew.

Russia, at the opening of the war, was governed simultaneously by two opposite and antagonistic governments. One had its origin in the Czar, the other had its origin in the peasant. In power they were about equal. One was autocratic, the other democratic; one was conservative, the other liberal; one was reactionary, the other progressive; one was old, the other new. One was the Court, the other was the Zemstvo.

Meaning of the Zemstvo Movement.

If once this Zemstvo question be clearly understood, much of the confusion regarding Russia is swept away. The Zemstvo was the government of the people, for the people, by the people of Russia in actual operation. Every village was a democratic entity governed by itself, with a village council called the Mir, consisting of the peasant householders of the village. It was strictly peasant. Not even the land-owner, though he were noble, had a voice in the Mir. It had its headman of the village and its collector of taxes.

A number of Mirs were united in a Volost, or canton, this being an assmbly of elected delegates from the Mirs. It also, therefore, was exclusively peasant in type. The Volost elected a court of Justice which decided cases by Peasant Law, a code which was highly peculiar to itself and which had nothing whatever to do with the law-courts of the empire. The principle of local self-government was continued in the Zemstvos. These were of two orders, one for the district and one for the province or government. The Zemstvo was a representative body having five classes of members: land-owners, clergy, merchants, artisans and peasant delegates from the Volosts.

At the top came the Duma, of which the members were elected by electoral colleges in each government. These colleges, in turn, were elected on the Zemstvo system with proportionate representation of the classes of nobles, clergy, merchants, workmen and peasants. In 1906 the privileges of all the various parts of this essentially democratic system were radically reduced by the Czar, but the system existed and returned in full measure during one period of the war. The essential thing to note is that Russia enjoyed a form of democratic government in which every peasant had the suffrage, and, since the meetings of the Mir were of the highest interest in the village, every Russian peasant was accustomed to popular representative government.

The Czar's Autocratic Government.

So far, so good. But Russia also possessed the autocratic government, the head of which was the Czar. His official title was "Emperor and Autocrat of All the Russias." None the less, this autocracy was definitely limited. The legislative power of the Emperor (after 1905) could be exercised only in concert with the Duma and the Council of the Empire. The latter body contained representatives of the monastic clergy (black), the secular clergy (white), the colleges and learned societies, the chambers of commerce, the industrial councils, the governments or provinces and six members from Poland. There was, besides this, the Council of Ministers, or the Cabinet, and the Senate, which was the Supreme Court of Justice in addition to its other administrative duties. The governmental officials of the various governments were under the imperial control, as was also the very powerful police system.

It will thus be seen that working from the bottom up was a powerful local system; working from the top down was a powerful central system. As the power of police and army was in the hands of the autocratic system, the local system might be held down; as the taxation and financial questions were in the hands of the local democratic system, the autocratic control might be kept down. Moreover, many Zemstvos had guardians of the peace which corresponded closely to one of the branches of the imperial police. It followed that a Zemstvo could do little without the governor, and, likewise, that the governor could do little without the Zemstvo. As, however, the one took authority from the people and the other from the Czar, these forces were always opposed.

All the internal problems of Russian government, prior to the war, were born of the fact that Russian government was a careful balancing of these opposite forces. There was very much to be said in favor of such a system, provided that the balance could be kept even, but it was potent with every kind of mischief should one party or the other secure control.

At the risk of repetition, it may be said again, that the evils of tyranny lurked in the appointive system, wherein the courts, the governors, the army and the police were the creatures of the Czar and his ministers; and that the evils of revolution and anarchy lurked in the local government system, wherein every peasant was trained to fight tooth and nail for his Mir, Volost, Zemstvo or Duma against the constituted authorities. The former explains such tyrannies as the "pogroms" or massacres of Jews, the latter explains the revolution of 1916.

Russian Revolution of 1916.

So much for the machinery through which the spirit of Czardom and Russism respectively expressed themselves. It is necessary now to understand the spirit of Russia, and this can best be done by giving an impartial account of the motives and development of the Russian revolution. This is all the more necessary as nearly all the books and propaganda which have been written of the Revolution of 1916 have been done by Jewish hands. The reader does not need to be reminded that the Jewish viewpoint is not the Russian viewpoint.

The Revolution of 1916 was a lineal but almost unrecognizable descendant of Nihilism. Early Nihilism was a movement among the nobles of Russia in favor of higher education. It began in the fifties. At that time, all forms of teaching were forbidden to nobles except a certain official routine. Women of noble families were allowed to attend only those schools where they were taught languages, music and court etiquette.

At this time Tolstoi was writing his gospel of humanity and the nobles took fire. To signalize their revolt against court formalities, the young nobles donned peasant clothing and the noblewomen (forbidden by law to walk on a street and required at the institutes to wear court dresses with low necks and long trains all the time, in order that they might be habituated thereto) cut off their hair, put on thick boots and made this a symbol of emancipation. This was the beginning of

the short-haired woman type. The nobles went to all sorts of extremes, mixing with the peasants and trying to live like them, as did Count Tolstoi himself. This ill-balanced idealism achieved nothing.

At first the police paid little attention to this intellectual revolt among the nobles, but, as it gained headway, they began to apply repressive measures. This increased the spirit of revolt, and some of the nobles began openly to ally themselves with the earlier movements, such as the Decembrists of 1820-1824, who had preached the theories of the French Revolution.

An attempt on the Czar's life in 1866 increased the severity of the repression. Nihilism took on a different character and became bitter. This was the period when Prince Kropotkin was the intellectual leader. To read a book not passed upon by the local police, to wear short hair, to don a peasant's clothes, to talk to a suspected person, to criticise an official or to advocate public schools was "revolution" and punishable with exile to Siberia.

Assassination of Czar Alexander II.

During the seventies the revolutionary movement spread, but was compelled to become secret. Police spies wormed their way into the organization and became members, finding means thus to betray their supposed comrades. The severity of the persecution steadily increased, and Terrorism was advocated by the "Central Committee" of a wing of the Revolutionary Party as the only argument that reactionary officials could understand. The autocratic tyrants hoped to quell liberty by fear. The Nihilists retorted that they should live under the dark shadow of Fear themselves. On March, 1881, Czar Alexander II was assassinated by a bomb, and the Terrorists openly rejoiced in the deed.

Under an evil counsellor, Pobiedonostzev, the new Czar, Alexander III, put into effect measures so stringent as to stamp out the Nihilist-Terrorist group. All the leaders, yes, all, were either hanged, shot or sentenced to Siberia. The effect was potent. Without leaders nothing could be done. The revolutionary movement of the eighties was driven into the ground. Sophie Petrofskaya, a noblewoman of royal blood, and a score of others were hanged. Over 600 were banished to Siberia. The old Nihilism of the nobles became extinct.

During the nineties a great change came over the revolutionary

party. It had been begun by nobles, exclusively; it had been carried on into the Terrorist regime largely by younger nobles, with here and there a university student who was not noble born. Only one man of Jewish extraction ever secured a place among the inner councils. During the nineties, however, the revolution spread among the professional classes, the merchant groups, the younger radical thinkers everywhere. These were the "intelligentsia," a word which has been mistranslated "intellectuals." The true sense of the word is "those willing to think." It included such different types as Prince Shakhovskvi, Professor Milyukoff and I. Petrunkevitch. It culminated in a huge student strike in 1899, and in 1900 the Minister of Education was assassinated. A dozen striking assassinations occurred during the next four years, the most notable being that of Von Plehve, Minister of the Interior, and Pobiedonostzeff's right-hand man.

The Crime of "Bloody Sunday."

The years 1900 to 1904 brought about the third form of revolution. The first had been educational and Nihilistic, the second had been retaliatory and Terroristic, the third was constitutional and Socialistic. A strong proportion of Jewish leaders, followers of less extreme socialistic theories, urged a revolution which should have a definite aim. Nihilism had been ridiculous despite the sublimity of its ideals; Terrorism had been inept, for lack of a plan.

The inexcusable crime of "Bloody Sunday," January 9, 1905, crystallized a strong constitutional movement into a definite rebellion. On that snowy Sunday, tens of thousands of workers, carrying ikons (sacred images) and led by Father Gapon, paraded before the Winter Palace to present a petition to the Czar. They were unarmed. The Grand Duke Vladimir, uncle of the Czar, ordered the troops to "fire and keep on shooting." Over 1,500 people, many of them dead and wounded, lay on the snow in front of the Winter Palace when the short afternoon was ended.

Repression met with failure, as always. All Russia became indignant. Unions were organized all over the country. Every class and section of the land espoused the Social Democrat cause. The "Autocrat of All the Russias" was forced to give way and the First Duma or representative parliament was called. It was a beginning, but a poor one, for the First and Second Dumas came to nought. This was the

fault of both sides. The Duma representatives demanded reforms which were so sweeping as to be impossible, and thus drew down upon themselves imperial distrust. Stolypin, the Prime Minister, again laid a heavy hand on all liberals.

The Third Duma, fairly representative of the spirit of the people, disillusioned and weary of anarchy, met November 15, 1907. It brought about a number of reforms, though its work was always hampered and curtailed in the Imperial Council. Gradually liberalism was spreading through Russia, a curious kind of liberalism which was without unity, which represented two-score of different parties, of all varieties of thought, from bloody anarchy to doctrinaire theory. Its principal characteristic, however, was Pan-Slavism.

Pan-Slavism, originally, had nothing to do with territory. It resembled Pan-Germanism in nothing. It was, in all essentials, a movement for Slav culture. This is a most important matter to understand, because it is the explanation of Germany's influence in Russia.

Efforts of Peter the Great.

To begin with, the new Russian culture, originated by Peter the Great at the beginning of the eighteenth century, was not Russian in any sense. It was not even Slavic. It was Germanic. Peter the Great saw the progress of Western Europe and realized the backwardness of his own country. He decided to force the ideas of Western Europe on his people. Sooner or later such a policy spells disaster. It was England's mistake in Ireland. It was Germany's error in Poland. During the eighteenth century and the first half of the nineteenth, Russia tended German-wards. Then came the internal revolt, when Pushkin took the folk-lore of the Slav for his poetry and Tschaikowsky took the folk-songs of the Slav for a basis in his music. A true Pan-Slavism took root in the hearts of the Russian people.

For a moment compare the Russian and the Irish situation. Just as England forced on Ireland governors of English extraction, designed to Englishize Ireland, so the Russian Czars (a German family, generally marrying German princesses) forced on Russia administrators drawn from Germany. The Imperial Court was largely German. German and French, not Russian, were the languages of the imperial circle.

Pan-Slavism was definitely opposed to this. It advocated Russian

officials for the Russian people. It desired the Russian language in the Russian court. It sought to retain Russian concessions for Russian captains of industry. It sought uniformity of tariffs, instead of a preferential tariff for Germany. Every Pan-Slavic movement, therefore, every internal development of Russia, each new public school built, was a direct blow at Germany. The Kaiser could not maintain his control over the Czar save by supporting his imperial brother in every effort to keep the people down. This brought about an impossible situation. It meant that the autocratic government was pro-German; the democratic government, pro-Slav. As always, the Zemstvo and the Court were on opposite sides of the fence. The Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievitch was a pan-Slav.

Duplicity of Czar Nicholas II.

When, therefore, the crime of Serajevo startled the world and Austria's aggression on Serbia set the world aflame, Czar Nicholas II, a man of no strength of character, was in an awkward position. If he definitely humbled himself before Germany, as he seemed to have wished, he knew that the whole Zemstvo-Pan-Slav forces of the empire would be allied against him. He knew that Nicholas Nicholaievitch, the commander-in-chief of the army, would be against him.

In the characteristic fashion of a weak man, the Czar proceeded to lie to both parties and to play a double game. He defied Germany openly and undermined Russia's armies secretly. He wrote notes and made speeches declaring his loyalty to Russia, meanwhile sending private emissaries in munition factories to see that shells were made which would not explode. He secretly placed German officials as railroad heads to prevent the delivery of food supplies to the troops at the time when food was most needed.

The Czarina informed the Germans of all Russian war plans, and when, in spite of all these handicaps, Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievitch smashed the Austrian lines, the Czar promptly took him from his command and sent him to the Caucasus, where he could aid the Allies but little. This was not necessarily the blame of Nicholas II, it was a part of the imperial policy of two centuries' standing, and it was the natural result of a nine-tenths German Czar with an all-German wife, living in a German court with German officials. Moreover, Russianism meant revolution and Nicholas feared two things, assassination

and dethronement. His weak-kneed policy, instead of saving him from either of these things, at last brought him both.

It is obvious, therefore, that the war on Germany was a popular one in Russia, for it was also a war on pro-Germanism in the imperial regime. It was a blow at the "black hundred." It was a national movement. All classes of thought, Democrats, Socialists, Constitutionalists, even some of the groups of Anarchists, joined in approval of the war. Such widely different men as Prince Kropotkin, Plekhanoff, Bourtzeff, Deutsch, and even Lenine (at first) endorsed the war. When it became known in November, 1914, that two of the Czar's ministers, Maklakoff and Schcheglovitoff, had presented a secret report advising immediate agreement to a separate peace, the country fell into an uproar. The spring of 1915 found the people of Russia a unit for the war, but also found them growing more and more suspicious of the pro-German ring in Petrograd.

Influence of the Monk "Rasputin."

The summer of 1915 saw steady defeat of the Russian armies, due uniformly to the inefficiency of munitions and supplies. This inefficiency became acute when the Imperial party took the management of transport away from the Zemstvo. In August, 1915, there was a violent scene in Petrograd when Nicholas Nicholaievitch appeared before the Czar and accused him in point-blank terms of selling the country to the enemy. He threatened his august relative with dethronement. But the court cabal was too strong, and on September 8, 1915, the Grand Duke was relieved of his position as Commander-in-Chief and the Czar took the post himself.

After that, matters became easy for the Germans. A month later they were at Warsaw and before the middle of November all the fortresses of the Russian frontier had fallen and German troops were at Riga, Dvinsk, Grodno, Brest-Litovsk and Czortkoff, a seizure of thousands of square miles of territory. All winter the line held. Grand Duke Nicholas, however, fighter and a strategist, achieved marvelous successes in the Caucasus and advanced on Erzerum.

The year 1916, in Russia, centered around the dark figure of Gregor Novikh, the monk, who became known by the nickname of "Rasputin", (a rake, or person of bad morals). He was a man of extraordinary personality, a dissolute degenerate, but a possessor of hypnotic healing

powers. The young Czarevitch was epileptic, the Czarina was hysteric. Rasputin promptly eased the pains of both and became an indispensable attachment to the court. A peasant himself, he realized that even the imperial underhand methods of dealing with the armies would not suffice to stop the vast powers of Russia once they woke. He knew, what no one else in the court realized, that the All-Russian Union of Zemstvos and the Union of Towns were infinitely stronger than Czardom. If he were to keep his place, it was necessary that Germany should be victorious. Accordingly, Rasputin succeeded in arranging the appointment of Sturmer, a German, as Premier of Russia, in place of Goremykin, reactionary though the latter had shown himself.

Treachery of Russia's Premier.

Sturmer commenced operations at once. In 1916 he issued an order forbidding the meeting of any democratic societies and expelling groups from the army. He placed all liberal headquarters in the hands of the police. He removed from the cabinet, Sazonoff, Minister of Foreign Affairs, the only Pan-Slav of the group. Finally, under Rasputin's suggestion, he appointed Protopopoff as Minister of the Interior, with the design of staging a popular revolution of such a character that the liberal element itself would be obliged either to disavow it or to find themselves placed in a hopelessly unfavorable light. This would afford the excuse for a fresh access of repression. Sturmer also definitely opposed General Brusiloff, apparently for no other reason than that the Commander of the Armies on the Austrian front was trying to do his duty in the cause of the Allies.

When the Duma met, November 14, 1916, a storm broke loose. Even the president of the Duma, Rodzianko, a staunch conservative, denounced Sturmer, and declared that the Premier was selling Russia to the enemy. Miliukoff, leader of the Constitutional Democrats, produced evidence of the treachery, and, not only that, but showed that Sturmer was receiving bribes from food speculators. Shuvaieff and Gregorovitch, respectively Minister of War and of the Navy, appeared at the Duma and supported the statements that Sturmer and Rasputin (which meant Czar and Czarina also) were negotiating with the enemy. Sturmer was forced out. Trepoff took his place.

Protopopoff, however, was still active. He organized the secret police and trained them in machine-gun methods. He ordered the

assassination of Miliukoff, but, at the last moment, the assassin, who was a Russian, repented of his treachery and revealed the plot. He fomented revolutionary disorders of contradictory and opposing characters in the unions of workers. Russia grew to hate Protopopoff with a mighty hate. Only Rasputin and the Czarina stood behind him.

In the early morning hours of December 30, 1916, two motor cars drove up to the palace of Prince Yusupoff, whose wife was a cousin of the Czar. Among the men in the party were two ex-ministers of the Interior, Pavlovitch and Khvostoff, and also Vladimir Purishkevitch, a deputy in the Duma. Shots were heard, but the police did not dare force an investigation, on account of the high rank of Prince Yusupoff. A bundle resembling a human body was carried out and put into one of the motor cars. Next morning a hole was found in the ice of the frozen river Neva, beside which stood two galoshes splashed with blood. Further search revealed the body. It was that of Rasputin.

The Successor to Rasputin.

The funeral of Rasputin became even more significant than his death. Though a peasant and a monk, he was accorded imperial honors. The Czar and Protopopoff actually were among the pall-bearers. On the other hand, the people greeted the news with delight, as though a great victory had been won, and the newspapers even dared to publish all the details of the crime. Even the new Premier, Trepoff, would not punish the assassins. Protopopoff stepped into Rasputin's place, commencing spiritualistic seances whereat he claimed to be in psychic communication with the dead monk. Trepoff was removed for failing to seize Rasputin's murderers, as were also the Ministers of War and the Navy. Pro-Germans were put in their place.

At last Protopopoff's plans matured. He was ready to provoke the revolution, breaking up the army from within, and then, by a sudden coup, putting the whole Russian government into the hands of Germany. On February 27, 1917, 300,000 workmen went on strike in Petrograd. During the first week of March martial law was declared. All seemed to be going as Protopopoff had desired.

The pro-German Prime Minister, however, had made a mistake. He had counted on raising a storm which he could quell. He raised a hurricane, which he could not control, instead. March 9 was the date set by Protopopoff for the revolution. His plans miscarried. The day

passed quietly. Everywhere the fostered revolt was becoming a real revolution. The workingmen were not in the streets raising riot, they were formally organizing. On the 10th the Council of Workers' Deputies was formed and the Duma suddenly passed a resolution stating "with such a Government the Duma forever severs its connections." The Czar answered with a decree dissolving the Duma.

Sunday, March 11, Protopopoff showed his hand. He ordered the soldiers to start an organized "repression of the revolt." Then occurred the surprise. Unknown to the Prime Minister, on the Friday and Saturday previous, several regiments of the army had joined the Duma and the people. The Pavlovsk regiment was the first. On Sunday morning, only one regiment in Petrograd remained loyal to Protopopoff and the pro-German Czarina. The Czar, who may or may not have known all the details of the plot, was at the front. The loyal regiment charged on the crowds in the streets. The revolting regiments seized the motor trucks and artillery and charged back. Vast mobs gathered. Protopopoff's newly armed police force joined the fray. It was a bloody Sunday. Protopopoff's desire of provoking anarchy seemed successful.

Success of the Revolutionists.

Monday saw an absolute change of front. On the Duma the red flag was flying. The soldiers refused to shoot the mobs, several regiments shot down their officers instead. The revolutionary regiments, after a sharp fight, captured the Arsenal. The jails and prisons were broken open and the prisoners liberated. Even the notorious Fortress of SS. Peter and Paul fell. The headquarters of the secret police was stormed, its defenders killed and the building burned to its foundations, together with all the records. There was little resistance.

Rodzianko, the president of the Duma, sent numerous telegrams to the Czar, closing with the famous message: "The last hour has struck. Tomorrow will be too late if you wish to save your throne and your dynasty." To this there was no response. The revolutionary soldiers then demanded of the Duma what action it intended to take. Rodzianko showed his telegrams and declared openly for a constitutional democracy. This was deemed satisfactory. That evening, the Council of Workers' Deputies admitted delegates from the revolutionary regiments and the name of the body was changed to the Council of Workmen and Soldiers' Deputies.

On the 12th Sturmer was arrested, and on the 13th Protopopoff gave himself up. Kerensky, the Socialist leader, saved the Prime Minister from lynching, fearing the effect of allowing mob violence to begin. Meanwhile the two committees, one of the Duma, and the other of the Council of Workmen and Soldiers' Deputies, worked furiously to arrange a programme. On the evening of the 14th a proclamation was made, beginning "Citizens! The wonderful has transpired. Old Russia is dead." Both parties worked in harmony, reds and constitutionalists. On the 15th a Provisional Government was formed with Prince Lvoff as Premier. He had been head of the All-Russian Union of Zemstvos. Miliukoff, leader of the Constitutional Democrats, became Foreign Minister. Kerensky, the radical Socialist, was made Minister of Justice. That same day the Czar was forced to abdicate. The revolution was an established fact. On March 22, the United States recognized the new Russian Government, and on March 23, Great Britain, France and Italy extended the formal diplomatic recognition.

Kerensky Made Provisional President.

Troubles soon began. The first hitch was over the question of the war. The Duma urged renewal of the Russian offensive, the socialistic Council of Workmen and Soldiers' Deputies urged internationalism and a congress for peace. The second hitch was over the question of a republic, Prince Lvoff, being a Constitutional Democrat and standing for a Constitutional Monarchy, while Kerensky urged a republican form of government. Peace was patched up for a time, but on July 20, 1917, Prince Lvoff retired from the premiership and Kerensky took his place.

Germany's hand had begun to appear. On July 17, 1917, the Petrograd Bolsheviki made their first attempt to seize government power. Both the Duma and the Council were against them. None the less, between July 17 and 19, over 500 men, women and children were killed on the streets of Petrograd. On July 25, by a vote of 300 to 11, the Council of Workers' and Soldiers' Deputies demanded that the Bolsheviki explain their alliance with Germany and demanded the arrest of Lenine and Zinovieff. The famous National Conference at Moscow, August 27-31, designed to formulate unison, only provoked discord.

On September 9, General Korniloff rose against the Provisional

Government. On the 10th Kerensky dismissed Korniloff. The commander-in-chief declared his intention to resist. This precipitated a new crisis and the Provisional Government declared a republic, with Kerensky as Provisional President.

The Preliminary Parliament of the Republic opened on October 8, 1917. The Bolshevists left at once. On November 7th the Parliament came to an abrupt end, when the Bolshevists overthrew it and declared the arrest of Kerensky. The first Constituent Assembly under Bolshevism was formally opened on January 18, 1918, and after a single day's session was dispersed by bayonets. Russia, delivered into the hands of the party she had never supported in any way, could do nothing but submit herself to be bargained for by Lenine, Trotzky and his ilk.

Betrayal of the Russian People.

On January 24, 1918, the Russian delegates to the peace conference at Brest-Litovsk rejected the German terms. The Germans answered with a threat. On February 9 the Ukraine signed a peace treaty with the Central Powers. On February 10 the Bolshevists capitulated. Documents which came into the hands of the United States Department of State revealed, to quote officially, "Complete proof of what the world had long suspected, namely, that Lenine and Trotzky and other members of the Bolshevist Government of Russia were paid German agents, who were systematically betraying the Russian people —even the workingman whom they pretended to represent—and were working from first to last for the Imperial German Government under the direction of German officers in Petrograd.

"These documents," says the official American report, "show that the Bolshevist revolution was arranged for by the German Great General Staff and financed by the German Imperial Bank and other German financial institutions. They show that the treaty of Brest-Litovsk was a betrayal of the Russian people by the German agents, Lenine and Trotzky; that a German-picked commander was chosen to 'defend' Petrograd against the Germans; that German officers have been secretly received by the Bolshevist Government as military advisers, as spies upon the embassies of Russia's allies, as officers in the Russian Army and as directors of Bolshevist military, foreign and domestic policy. They show, in short, that the present Bolshevist Government is not a Russian Government at all, but a German government, acting solely

in the interests of Germany and betraying the Russian people for the benefit of the Imperial German Government alone."

That there should be no possible counter-revolution, the Bolshevists assassinated the Czar, killed all nobles at sight, instituted a Reign of Terror on every hand, and, even after the close of the war, from November 10-15, 1918, instituted a wholesale massacre which, they boasted, "far outshone the massacres of St. Bartholomew's Eve."

This deplorable picture must be closed with the remembrance that Bolshevism was not Russian, it was German. The headquarters of the Bolshevists were in Berlin. Public condemnation should not fall on the Russian people, but on the Judas who betrayed it and the Teuton paymaster of the thirty pieces of silver. It must not be forgotten that the Russia which was recognized by the powers was the Russia under Prince Lvoff, a constitutional democracy. Russia failed the Allies, she failed the world, but it was only because she was sold by her false rulers and her sham friends.

CHAPTER XLII.

FEUDAL ROUMANIA, A COUNTRY OUT-OF-DATE.

An Island of Latins Entirely Surrounded by Alien Blood—Bessarabia as a Second Alsace-Lorraine—Dobrudja, the Mouth of the Danube and the Port of Constanza—Half-Hearted Entrance Into the War—Greater Roumania a Possible First-Class Power.

RACIALLY, Roumania had nothing to do with the war. Unlike every other participant in the East, she could afford to stay neutral so far as the sentiment of her people was concerned. She was neither Teuton, Turk nor Slav. With Slavic Russia to the north, Teuton Austria to the northwest, Finno-Ugric Hungary to the west, Slavic Serbia to the southwest, and Tartar Bulgaria to the south, she was completely isolated from her nearest of kin, the Italians. For the Roumanians, as their name shows, are the descendants of Roman legions and speak a Latin not much more removed from ancient Latin that modern Greek is different from ancient Greek.

The Roumanian territorial problem, however, possessed some intricacies. Greater Roumania, that is to say the territory in which the Roumanians predominate, included Bessarabia in Russia and Transylvania in Hungary. Besides this, much of Bukovina in Austria was Roumanian. This condition gave rise to neutrality at the beginning of the war, since, if Roumania were to gain in the great conflict, it would be necessary for her to find out from which side she could gain the greatest advantage.

Modern Roumania, as she was at the opening of the war, consisted of two provinces, Wallachia and Moldavia, which united in 1859 under a native prince. In 1866 a bloodless revolution deposed and banished Prince Cousa, because of his high-handed methods, excellent though these had proved to be for the country. The crown was then offered to Prince Carol, a member of a sidebranch of the Hohenzollern family.

After the Russo-Turkish War of 1877, Roumania was given the Dobrudja (a strip of waste land on the Black Sea) in exchange for southern Bessarabia, which was given to Russia. Roumania bitterly

resented this. So did Bulgaria, from whom the Dobrudja had been taken.

As time went on, however, Roumania found that the possession of a direct frontage on the Black Sea and of the port of Constanza was of high commercial value. The Bulgarian frontier, however, ran too close to Constanza for Roumania's liking, so, in 1913, in the Second Balkan War, Roumania invaded Bulgaria and compelled that country to cede a wide strip of territory to the south of Dobrudja, and also the fortress of Silistria on the Danube. Such was Roumania at the opening of the war.

Roumania Declares War.

So far as population was concerned, Roumania had an area of 53,000 square miles and a population of 7,500,000, with four-fifths of the population Roumanian. Five per cent. of the population was Jewish. The remainder, on the frontier, was colored with the nationalities they bordered. Eastern Hungary, including Transylvania and the Banat of Temesvar, had an area of 40,000 square miles, with a population of 6,000,000, of which almost one-half were Roumanians. Bukowina had an area of 4,000 square miles and a population of 750,000, of which one-third were Roumanians. Bessarabia had an area of 17,000 square miles and a population of over 2,500,000, of which the Roumanians numbered almost one-half. Northeastern Serbia had an area of 2,000 square miles, with a population of 40,000, one-third Roumanian. The total area of this whole section was about the same size as Italy, with a Roumanian population of 14,000,000, or twice as numerous as that of Norway and Sweden together. Were Greater Roumania create into a single state, therefore, she would be claimed as a first-class power.

In the coldest possible terms, Roumania entered the war on the side which she thought would win, and declared, in her official declaration of war, that she had done so "by the side of those who are able to assure her realization of national unity." In addition to this somewhat sordid aim, Roumania pointed out that the Roumanians in Hungary had been continually mistreated, an admitted fact, and that Austria had provoked the war to change the status quo in the Balkans for her own aggrandizement and in such a manner as to menace Roumania herself. The declaration of war was made by Roumania on August 28, 1916, and was greeted with satisfaction by the Allied Powers, who scrupled not

to say that a Greater Roumania, the country of the "Latins of the Danube," would be a valuable western European barrier to either Teuton, Bulgarian or Slavic aggression.

As has been shown in the historical treatment of the Roumanian campaign, the Danube Latins chose her time badly. Roumania's initial invasion of Austria proved a great military success, indeed, and the aid of Russia, shown by her occupation of the Dobrudja, was also a success. Both, however, contained seeds of weakness. Less than a week later a strong force of Germano-Bulgarian-Turkish troops, which had been quietly mobilizing in anticipation of Roumania's decision, hurled itself into the Dobrudja, which, as has been said, is a sterile wind-swept heath, essential to Roumania as a coast-line.

Germany Strikes at Roumania.

The Dobrudja fell almost at once under the smashing tactics of von Mackensen. The Roumanian troops continued to advance in Hungary until Germany was ready to strike there. The issue was not long in doubt. Germany hurled armies at three points simultaneously. Von Mackensen drove north. On December 6, 1916, Bucharest, the capital, fell into Teuton hands, and with it went one-half of Roumania.

True to its own Hun character and its Bulgaro-Turkish alliance, the Austro-German occupation of Roumania (which was extended bit by bit to include almost the whole country) was handled in much the same manner as the occupation of Belgium. Over 1,100 Roumanians of Transylvania were sentenced to penal servitude. All Roumanian estates in Austro-Hungarian territory were confiscated. Bucharest was victimized by a Reign of Terror. Seventy-five of the national leaders were executed, following a summary court martial, several of them priests. The customary personal violence and attacks on convents were made by the German invaders. This continued until the German aggressors were finally driven out at the close of the war.

The effect of the war on Roumania was extraordinary. Despite their Latin stock, in 1914 Roumania was far behind the European nations in her social state. She was still mentally in the Middle Ages, living in a feudal state with masses of untaught peasant tenants on the lands of the Boyars. Commerce was in the hands of the Jews, a persecuted caste. There was no peasant democracy, such as those of Bulgaria and Serbia. All the intellectual life of the country was in Buch-

arest. Everything else was "the provinces," where the absentee landlord Boyars seldom lived, but extorted their rents from Greek agents. Jewish and Armenian peddlers and usurers bled the Roumanian peasant of everything his noble had left him.

The war necessitated the awakening of the peasant, and, being of a Latin stock, he was readily teachable. The reorganization of the Roumanian Army, a fact brought about by the Allied occupation of Saloniki, whither the Roumanian forces gathered, meant the reorganization of Roumanian character. By the close of the war, the Roumanian Army was not a collection of armed peasants, but an army of citizen soldiers, having learned the two great lessons of modern military life, namely, the value of discipline and the value of individual action. Roumania, under Germanic militaristic teaching might have become even more submissive; Roumania, under Allied teaching, became tinct with constitutionalism and the spirit of liberty.

Roumania Redeemed.

Meanwhile, the year 1918 brought into sharp relief the trouble that always exists between king and people when the king is of a different race than his subjects. King Ferdinand, nephew of the Hohenzollern Prince Carol, had married a German Princess, daughter of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha. He played into the hands of Germany to the extent of accepting terms of separate peace, which was compulsorily ratified by the Roumanian Senate on July 6, 1918. The Peace itself, signed by Roumania and the Central Powers on May 7, 1918, gave the right of navigation of the Danube to the Central Powers and reiterated Bulgaria's possession of the Dobrudja.

Like the former "Peace" of Bucharest, this latter treaty was but a foundation for future war. The Roumanian people, in every way possible for a conquered country, protested. The leaders of Roumania—such as were left alive—declared: "In the name of the Roumanian people we openly declare ourselves the allies of the Entente Powers, and we proclaim the Treaty of Bucharest null and void."

The last phase came with the signing of the armistice when Germany was whipped, and the abdication of King Ferdinand ended German influence in the Latin state on the Danube.

CHAPTER XLIII.

FALLEN GREECE, A LAND OF CIVIL STRIFE.

Levantine Weakness—Result of Balkan Wars—King Constantine and Premier Venizelos Deadlocked—Macedonia a Bone of Contention Between Serbia, Bulgaria and Greece—Albania Coveted by Serbia, Greece and Italy—The Occupation of Saloniki.

"GREECE—the Neutral With No Friends!" Such was the phrase with which Polyzoides in 1916 summed up the result of the two years of civil war in Greece. It cannot, in honesty, be said that Greece's action was a surprise to those diplomats who were well informed on Balkan questions. Rightly or wrongly, throughout the Near East, Greece has always been regarded as tricky and untrustworthy. It is no secret that Greece was despised by all nations bordering on the Mediterranean, it is universally known that Greece was hated by all her neighbors to the north. The reason was simple. Greeee, for many centuries, had manifested a definite objection to playing fair. "The slippery Greek" is a Levantine proverb.

Greeee has always been bitten with the madness of a "Great Idea." National aspirations may sometimes be legitimate madness. No one holds Roumania to blame for wanting to put all the Roumanians under one flag. But Greece wanted far more. Sunk in the stupid notion that modern Greece is the inheritor of the Byzantine Empire, there has always been a strong Greek party which demanded all of European Turkey, control of Constantinople and the western part of Asia Minor, all of Macedonia, all of Albania, most of the Balkans and all the islands of the sea adjacent. There was neither rhyme nor reason in this desire. It was neither historically, racially, linguistically nor politically sound. It had nothing but a decadent vanity on its side.

With characteristic ingenuity, Greece had succeeded in pulling most of the plums out of the Balkan War pie with a minimum of effort. As a result of the treaties—not as a result of fighting—Greece had doubled her territory and almost doubled her population. Saloniki and Kavalla, second only in importance to Constantinople, were in Hellenic hands, and Crete was once more reunited to the motherland.

With the outbreak of the world war, the Greek people at first found themselves in sympathy with the Allied cause. This was especially true of the coast peoples, who were followers of Venizelos, the Premier. For many years France and England had been friendly to Greece; during the Balkan Wars, Greece and Serbia had hung together. The two principal foes to Greece, namely, Bulgaria and Turkey, were on the opposite side. There seemed no doubt as to where the sympathies of Greece should stand. When, therefore, the Anglo-French fleet began its bombardment of the Dardanelles in February, 1915, it was with little compunction that the Allies asked the Hellenic Government to furnish an army to aid the naval attack. King Constantine promptly refused.

For this refusal there were three reasons. The first was the character of the King himself and of his entourage. King Constantine was not a Greek, but a German. Moreover, he was married to Sophia of Prussia, sister of the Kaiser. He was, therefore, the Kaiser's brother-in-law. Naturally, Cabinet ministers chosen by the King would be strongly influenced by pro-German leanings.

Greece Refused to Assist the Allies.

The second reason was the fear of invasion from the north, especially by Greece's dark enemy, the Bulgars, a fear which was very potent with the inland peasants, as contrasted with the coast peoples. The third reason was the Macedonian question; Greek Macedonia being solidly for neutrality, fearing the invasive possibilities of Serbian and Bulgarian Macedonia. King Constantine argued that the Allies would have their hands so full on the western and eastern fronts that they would not be able to spare an army to protect Greece against the Turko-Bulgarian invasion which would assuredly result from a declaration of war.

Then came the entrance of Italy into the war. This was a matter of vital interest to Greece, for the Italian attitude to the Adriatic was definitely hostile to Greece. The inclusion of Italy among the Allies, therefore, strengthened King Constantine's pro-German position, largely because of Albania.

The Albanians are a race of about 1,000,000 people, mainly settled in Albania, an artificial State created by the Powers in 1913, after the close of the Second Balkan War. Albania, so constituted, was a band

of rugged mountain-land, facing the Adriatic Sea, with Montenegro on the north, Serbia on the east and Greece on the southeast and south.

Strategically, Albania is important as the Balkan outlet to the Adriatic. Therefore, Serbia and Bulgaria both wanted it. Italy was unwilling that a Balkan State should face her across the narrow Adriatic. Greece was resentful of Italian desires, rightly claiming that Albania is more Greek than Italian.

The story of Albania during the first two years of the war can be told in one word—anarchy. Albania was a "horrible example" of international control. The Albanians are a proud, fighting race, who dislike the Serbs as much as they do the Greeks, and hate the Bulgarians more than either. During the war Austria occupied the hinterland of Albania and Italy dominated the coast and the islands.

Civil War in Greece.

King Constantine's refusal of aid to the Allies created great hostility among the Allies, who promptly saw the mailed fist of the Kaiser leading his brother-in-law by the nose. To the diplomats of the Entente, therefore, it seemed wiser to try and induce Bulgaria to transfer her allegiance, for it was a well-known fact that Bulgaria had only entered the war with the aim of winning as much territory as possible. For this reason, the Allies went so far as to offer Bulgaria the whole of Macedonia, specifying those districts which were definitely Greek. The Allies, here, were imitating the Central Powers in disposing of territories to which they had not the slightest right.

There were two ways of regarding this offer. The Venizelists took it as a threat and warned Greece that if she persisted in standing off from the Allies she would be carved to pieces at the end of the war. The King and his party promptly took the offer as an affront and definitely acclaimed Germany as their hope.

The Austro-German drive, in September, 1915, brought the crisis to a head. The Venizelists stood by Serbia. The King declared that entrance to the war on the Allied side would simply imbroil Greece in Serbia's impending fate. Venizelos was compelled to resign, the King dissolved the Venizelos ministry and appointed a pro-neutral if not, indeed, definitely pro-German cabinet. As the people of Greece were with Venizelos, this meant civil war.

During 1916 matters grew more and more tense. The Allies

promptly seized the greater part of Greek Macedonia, and, with Venizelist assistance, occupied several Greek islands. Constantine, now avowedly pro-German, turned over a Macedonian border fortress to the Germans in May, 1916.

In the autumn of 1916 Venizelos fled from Athens and established a revolutionary government at Saloniki, under the official protection of the Allies. The coast peoples followed, and Greek Macedonia swung into line. Continental and Northern Greece stood by the King. On October 17, 1916, the Entente Allies formally recognized the Venizelos government at Saloniki as the government of Greece, the Greek fleet having been seized by the Allies six days before.

Abdication of Kings Constantine and Ferdinand.

The Allies, now, were thoroughly aroused and determined to stand no nonsense. On November 15, after two weeks of rigid blockade, Constantine found himself compelled to accept some stern demands made by the English and French. The diplomatic representatives of the Central Powers were curtly ordered to go, and went, under protest, on November 21. On November 24 the Allies delivered an ultimatum demanding disarmament of the Greek Army. The Government refused, on November 28. The next day Allied troopships, with a strong force aboard, landed in Greece. On December 1 the King publicly rejected the Allies' demands. On December 11, a still more drastic ultimatum was presented, expiring December 15. This meant peace or war with the Allies. The King knew that his people were steadily slipping away from him, and he was compelled to accept the ultimatum. At this time a new republic, known as Koritza, was established in Albania, on December 12, 1916.

In the following spring, Constantine proceeded to strengthen his secret diplomacy with Germany and thought himself strong enough to dare to present a note to Italy insisting upon the withdrawal of Italian troops from Epirus. In May, documents came into the hands of the Allies showing that Constantine was still intriguing with his brother-in-law, the Kaiser. Wherefore, on June 12, 1916, the Allies demanded his abdication and the renunciation of the throne by the Greek Crown Prince, stating, however, that the second son, Alexander, would be acceptable.

With Constantine's intrigues thus definitely ended, the Allies'

concern with Greece grew less. Saloniki was held as a base from which a Balkan campaign might be begun later, but, in the meantime, France was kept at her uttermost to hold back the German drives, Italy was at the stretch and Great Britain was facing serious trouble in Mesopotamia. There were no troops to spare for a Greek campaign.

It was not until after American troops had begun to arrive in France that forces could be spared to send to Saloniki. By that time the Greek Army, no longer under the evil influence of the Kaiser's brother-in-law, had been reorganized, just as the Roumanian Army had been.

When, on September 16, 1918, the Allied offensive started from Bulgaria, the result was a foregone conclusion. It took just twelve days to humble Bulgaria, and, on September 28, 1918, Bulgaria signed the terms of the armistice agreeing "to evacuate all the territory she now occupies in Greece and Serbia." Ferdinand of Bulgaria (also a German prince) joined his German relative, the ex-King of Greece, and abdicated on October 4, 1918. Greece was not only freed of her foes, but relieved from the Bulgarian menace.

The close of the war found Greece conjoint with the Allies, but not an ally. Mistrusted at the beginning, she was mistrusted to the last, her alliance being safeguarded by constant occupation by the fleets and troops of the Entente. Saloniki was still an Allies' port of occupation, not a Greek port, when the world war came to an end. She had made alliances, she had not made friends.

CHAPTER XLIV.

SWEDEN AND FINLAND, WRESTLERS OF THE NORTH.

Gustavus Adolphus and the Baltic—Scandinavia—Separation of Norway and Sweden—Norway Pro-Ally and Sweden Pro-German in the World War—Finland Taken From Sweden by Russia—Her Strategic Importance—German Intrusion and Local Bolshevism.

IT is wise to remember that less than three centries ago, Sweden, not Germany, planned to be the master of Northern Europe In 1630 Gustavus Adolphus landed in Germany, forced an alliance with Pomerania and made himself master of the Baltic coast. He advanced to Berlin and by means of Swedish cannon forced an alliance by which important fortresses in Germany were ceded to Sweden. Saxony made an alliance and at the Battle of Breitenfeld, the army of the Holy Roman Empire was put to flight. The Saxons occupied Prague, in Bohemia; Gustavus attacked Southern Germany. In 1632, having conquered Northern Germany, he entered Munich, and Bavaria was at his feet. It was Gustavus' ambition to create a Protestant Empire, but he was killed at the Battle of Lutzen, and, since the Swedish successes had been of the Napoleonic character, due to one great military leader, all the Protestant Empire plans fell to shreds at his death.

During the latter part of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Sweden remained within herself, helpless before the growing strength of Prussia. It had been with the aid of Charles X of Sweden, indeed, that Prussia freed herself from the Polish Crown, but at the Battle of Fehrbellin, in 1675, the Great Elector turned on his former allies and drove them from Pomerania. From that time on, Sweden dwindled until all her possessions were lost save the Scandinavian peninsula itself. In 1809 Finland was snatched from Sweden and its history thereafter became a part of the vast Slav empire.

The nineteenth century, however, transformed Sweden from a poor country into a rich one. The steamship and the railroad unlocked Sweden's vast mineral wealth, the discovery of the transmutation of water power into electric power gave Sweden a marvelous industrial opportunity. Norway, Sweden and Denmark ceased to be "Scandi-

navians,'' they became aggressively Swedes, Norwegians and Danes. This culminated in the violent separation of Norway from Sweden in 1905.

At the opening of the war, Norway and Sweden were far apart, nationally hostile, but linked by the Scandinavian bond. Norway, primarily a coast people nation, with huge shipping interests—by far the largest merchant marine in the world in proportion to population—necessarily was compelled to be friends with the naval powers. Sweden considered herself the leader of all Scandinavian peoples and had never forgiven Russia. It was impossible for Swedish thought to favor an alliance which included Russia. The enforced Russification of Finland —a dark and bloody chapter—did more than anger Sweden. It made her fear for herself. It warned her that Russian Finland was just across the Gulf of Bothnia and that Russian invasion was an ever-present possibility. Russia had never ceased to seek an outlet to the sea. She might seize it by the Swedish route. There were a score of minor issues, but they all tended in the same direction, namely, to cause Norway to be pro-Ally and Sweden to be pro-German.

Sweden's Support of Germany.

The first two years of the war showed Sweden's position very definitely. In January, 1915, when the Germans had been compelled to dig in at the Aisne, or, to put the matter another way, when France had shown herself strong enough to hurl back the Teutons at the Marne, when England had absolutely blockaded the North Sea and when Russia was in the full tide of advance, Swedish politics took on a new turn. The ''Activist'' or pro-German propaganda was stopped by the government. Sweden would stay neutral if the Allies were likely to win, she would have plunged solidly into the war if Germany's initial success had been maintained.

Even then Sweden constantly defied England. She alone retaliated against England's somewhat high-handed proceedings on the high seas, seizing British mail-bags in reprisal and laying an embargo on Swedish exports to England.

All the world knew that Sweden was Germany's main source of metals. None the less, the Allies were well aware of the strength and military efficiency of Sweden's army and forebore from adding further battalions in hostile array against them on the western front.

Sweden, likewise, forebore to force the issue. The picture of Germany's great fleet lurking in the Kiel Canal, afraid to come out and face the foe, told its own story of what might happen if a British-Norwegian fleet entered the Baltic. The Kiel Canal, as a plan, was a magnificent one, provided the German Navy were strong enough to play its part. But, with a navy afraid to give battle, no facility of waterways mattered. In view of the Allies' successes, Sweden was compelled to sing small. To help Germany as much as possible without violating neutrality was her part in the war.

Finland, as constituted as a Grand Duchy under Russia at the opening of the war, was not a small country; it was larger than the whole of Norway. It was very scantily populated, however, having less than 3,000,000 people, seven-eighths of whom were Finns or Finno-Swedes. The pure Swedes were found only on the coast, but formed the aristocracy of those sections. The Finns are thrifty, intelligent and far advanced in education. They are intensely nationalistic, and possess a rich literature of their own. Racially, they are more closely allied to the Magyars of Hungary than any other European people. An offshoot of the same race stock is the Eskimo. Though politically under the rule of Russia at the opening of the war, Russia was hated, Russian cultural influence was small.

Differences Between Russia and Finland.

The breaking away of Finland from Russia was hastened by the Czar's action in 1899, when the Constitution of Finland was suspended and the country placed under a Governor General of famed brutality. The Russian Revolution of 1905 led to a restatement of Finland's autonomy, but the succeeding reactionism in Russia led to a new set of repressive measures in 1910.

On March 21, 1917, the famous Restoration Manifesto was Russia's first definite sign that she dared no longer try and subjugate Poland. This Manifesto set aside all former laws and imperial edicts contrary to the Finnish Constitution, and amnestied all Finns (several thousand) who were imprisoned or exiled for religious or political offences. It closed with the phrase, "We solemnly confirm to the Finnish people the integrity, based on the Constitution, of its internal independence and the rights of its national culture and languages."

This sounded well, but was nonsense, none the less. Under the

Constitution, the supreme governmental authority was vested in the person of the Czar. At the time of the Manifesto there was no Czar. To whom, then, did these governmental rights belong? The ensuing wrangle endured for many months, during which it became more and more obvious that there was no definite party in Russia with a programme susceptible of support by the Finns. Consequently, on July 19, 1917, the Finnish Diet rejected the suzerainty of Russia. The retort was an order from Russia, received August 3, 1917, declaring the Finnish Diet dissolved. Moreover, the Russian Governor General issued a proclamation, "hoping to avoid the necessity of resorting to force." In view of Russia's previous handling of Finland, this was not an empty threat. The Finns, following their customary policy of passive, rather than active, resistance, submitted, but proceeded to make tax-gathering impossible, and compelled the maintenance of Russian garrisons throughout the country.

Finland Declared an Independent Republic.

The next change in Finland's affairs came upon the Bolshevist coup d'etat in November, 1917. When Kerensky fell, the Governor General left Finland, which was thus without Russian governorship. The Bolshevists failed to name any one to fill the post, and on December 7, 1917, the Diet proclaimed Finland an independent republic. Sweden first, and afterwards, France, Norway, Denmark and Germany, recognized the republic. On January 9, 1918, the Bolshevist government also recognized the Republic of Finland, thus canceling all Russia's claim to any form of over-lordship over the Finnish people.

Then Germany commenced to interfere. On the pretext of saving the new Republic of Finland from Bolshevism, she sent troops to Finland toward the end of March, 1918, as soon as travel was possible. Two parties promptly formed in Finland, one independent, the other pro-German. A Finnish-German force attacked the Murman Railway (running from the Arctic Ocean to Petrograd) early in April. The Allies retorted by sending a detachment to operate with the Russian Red Guards (a strange mixture!) at Kem. On July 2, a Finno-German railroad was completed to Kem. The next day a German campaign started. The Allies replied by landing American and Anglo-French forces on the Murman coast.

Realizing that a Finnish Republic would be an awkward ally, the

German Kaiser decided to force a German prince upon Finland and compel it to become a monarchy. The Finns were given the choice of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg or Prince William of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. The Diet proving opposed to both, the Germans arrested all those who were opposed to the plan, ninety-eight members in number.

Early in September, Finland was compelled to submit to Germany and a treaty was signed whereby the entire force of the Finnish Army was placed at the disposal of Germany. On September 17, Prince Frederick Charles of Hesse declared his willingness to accept the crown of Finland. It may be remarked that the Finnish people had not offered the crown, only a Finnish chamber stuffed by Germans with all non-pro-German members in prison. This Diet ratified the choice on October 11, 1918. Aside from the imprisoned members, a large proportion of the Diet abstained from voting, thus technically making the vote null and void, the numbers voting for the monarchy not constituting a majority.

Ten days later Germany began her appeals for an armistice, and before the end of the month it became visible throughout Europe that Germany was defeated and was only striving to find some armistice terms which did not specifically state that she was whipped. Finland was not slow to see the weakening grasp of her new master. November 1, 1918, ten days before the world war ended, the Finnish Government declared an armistice with the Finnish Revolutionists. So the war closed for Finland, a republic which had, under duress, called a German monarch to the throne. Come what might in the future, it had at least become an independent country, freed from the tyrannous yoke of Russia.

CHAPTER XLV.

DENMARK AND HOLLAND, THE "STRICTLY NEUTRALS."

The Teuton Bullying of Little Denmark, With Schleswig-Holstein as Booty—Wide Difference in Spirit Between Schleswig and Holstein—Holland, the Hater of England—"Netherlands Over-Seas Trust" —Feeding Germany on the Sly—Kaiser Received as a Fugitive.

MORE than any other nation of Europe, Denmark preserved a strict neutrality throughout the war. This was not due to the fact that Denmark was not vitally interested; it was due rather to two dominant factors. The first of these was the Scandinavian agreement whereby Norway, Sweden and Denmark agreed to keep out of the war, if possible; the second was the internal condition of Denmark herself, with a pro-German aristocratic and army circle and an agricultural and ultra-democratic people, actively pro-Ally. Moreover, Denmark achieved the apparently impossible—she remained neutral without loss of self-respect.

It is almost solely with regard to Schleswig-Holstein that Denmark had any relations with the war, and the Schleswig-Holstein question did not come to the fore until the latter part of 1918. Throughout the four years, however, it lurked in the background as a possible issue, and came prominently forward during preparatory Peace Table conferences.

Schleswig-Holstein has always been controversial territory between the Germans and the Danes. In the Middle Ages Holstein was a German frontier against Danish incursions, while Schleswig was Danish in culture. At the beginning of the fifteenth century, the two Marks or provinces were united under a single ruler. When his line died out, the provinces passed by inheritance to the royal house of Denmark under the special condition that the Danish King should maintain it as a separate Grand Duchy, somewhat in the same fashion that Finland was attached to the Czardom of Russia.

Towards the middle of the nineteenth century the old Danish royal house approached extinction. A genealogical question of great entan-

glement arose, out of which it became clear that the Danes desired to incorporate the provinces as Danish provinces pure and simple. Germany objected. Denmark proposed a fair compromise, that Danish Schleswig should go to Denmark and German Holstein to Prussia. The Germans dug up the so-called Indissoluble Union Act of 1420 and declared that the two provinces could never be separated. War began, which was stopped by the Powers in 1850. When the Danish royal line definitely became extinct in 1863, Bismarck came forward and proceeded to expel the Danes from Schleswig-Holstein. Denmark, relying on England, resisted. England failed to come to her assistance. The result was predetermined. In 1864 Prussia seized Schleswig-Holstein and has kept the provinces ever since.

Schleswig-Holstein Oppressed by Germany.

In size, Schleswig-Holstein as defined at the opening of the war was approximately 7,340 square miles in area, two-thirds the size of Belgium. The population was 1,600,000, of which the Danes numbered only 150,000. Holstein was solidly German and Schleswig was sixty per cent. German. Strategically, the provinces were important, for the Kiel Canal runs along the southern border of Schleswig, at Kiel, while on the North Sea side, Holstein controls the mouth of the Elbe.

One of the principal issues in Schleswig-Holstein, however, has nothing to do with territorial questions. It deals mainly with Hun interference in Danish culture. In 1889, it was forbidden to use Danish even in the schools of Schleswig. Schoolmasters were forbidden to teach children any Danish history prior to the Prussian conquest. Prussian military songs were compulsory at examinations. A child who spoke Danish to his Danish schoolfellows in the playground was punishable by flogging. "The tyrants of the birch rod" became famous.

This was bad enough, but the Hun could do yet worse. In 1888 religious instruction was forbidden in Danish. The Lutheran ministers were State functionaries and were compelled to obey. No religious services could be held in Danish. A Danish pastor was sentenced to three years' imprisonment for having given the dying sacrament in Danish to an old Danish woman, although the evidence at the trial showed that she did not understand German. The Danish Free Church was forbidden. As late as 1907 further laws were passed, these forbidding the use of Danish in the courts and public assemblies. A lecture

by the explorer Nansen, in Danish, dealing with North Pole exploration, was broken up by the Prussian police. When, therefore, it is said that Schleswig had been made sixty per cent. German, it is well to remember how this consummation had been brought about.

The story of Schleswig-Holstein during the war is the terrible story of compulsory silence. Schleswig Danes were compelled to fight on the side of a foe they hated. Food was reduced to a minimum. Denmark, though conscious of the conditions in her lost provinces, did not dare to protest, lest this should lead to reprisals and plunge her into war. Among the allies, at various times, references were made to the Schleswig-Holstein question, sometimes frankly, more often in guarded utterance. The war closed with Denmark's skirts clear of any international difficulties, her attitude being that of a dignified expectance that the Allied victory would result in justice and liberty.

Holland's Peculiar Situation.

Holland, as a "strictly neutral," is a very different story. Since no territorial question was involved, it is needless to go into Holland's early history, although it may be remembered that the Dutch Republic was one of the first great republics of the world's history. But Holland for years before the outbreak of the world war had seen the impending conflict, and, though not a rich nation, had built up a strong defensive army and navy.

When, in August, 1914, Queen Wilhelmina announced the positive intention of Holland to stay neutral under any and all conditions of the world war, her decision was acclaimed by her people of all shades of opinion. When Germany tempted Holland with the bait of Belgian territory, she turned a deaf ear; when the Allies suggested that a slice of Germany might march well with the coasts of Holland, that offer met with the same disregard.

There was more than self-interest in Holland's position, however. There was sentiment, also. The Dutch are essentially a peace-loving people, strongly individualistic in type, and with a personal aversion to Prussian militarism. They were historic enemies in the past. On the other hand, there are strong cultural ties between Holland and Germany. The trade of the Rhine is a source of Holland's prosperity and Germany is Holland's best customer. So far as Germany was concerned, Holland was naturally neutral.

The British question had another side. In perfectly plain terms, Holland hated England. Holland was the great early colonial empire of the world, but, little by little, England robbed her of the supremacy. Holland was the maritime leader of the world, but when Van Tromp hoisted a broom at his masthead to show that he swept the sea, the British promptly hauled it down. The Boer War fanned the flame to greater fury and England's alliance with Japan had a sinister menace to Dutch East India interests. Neither did England show any love lost for the Hollanders.

The progress of the war produced in Holland a type of neutrality markedly different from that of Denmark. The latter country held aloof from the war. Holland could not. For one thing, Denmark, an agricultural people, could well remain self-contained. Holland, a trading nation, was grievously injured by each succeeding day of the war, no matter which side possessed the advantage.

The Netherlands Overseas Trust.

The question of food and supplies for Germany was a bitter issue. No one denied that Holland had a perfect right, as a neutral, to deal with Germany; nor that she had a perfect right to deal with England. But that Holland should simply be a port of shipment for supplies to Germany, when Great Britain had made a blockade of the North Sea, was intolerable. It would be profitless to detail the innumerable controversies that cropped up throughout the entire war with regard to Dutch shipping. Much of it dealt with the vexed question of contraband of war. Even the United States was entangled in this controversy and there were American seizures of Dutch shipping which greatly hurt the feelings of Holland.

The principal world issue raised in Holland by the war was in connection with the "Netherlands Overseas Trust," an English embargo on Dutch trade. The facts of the case were simple. During the first six months of 1914, Holland shipped to Germany 7,000 tons of butter, but, in the latter half of that year, after war had been declared, the shipments rose to 19,000 tons; cheese jumped from 6,000 tons to 45,000 tons; cocoa, from 1,000 tons to 3,000 tons; eggs, from 7,000 tons to 20,000 tons; meat, from 6,000 tons to 40,000 tons, and so forth. When Dutch commercial circles calmly denied that they were provisioning Germany for the war, England raised Holland's veracity

in question. The Netherlands Overseas Trust was formed, which was greeted in Holland with furious protest as a limitation of the commerce rights of a sovereign State.

Lesser causes have plunged nations into war, but, as it chanced, simultaneously, Germany was arousing Dutch indignation by her commerce violations with regard to submarine warfare and also by her Zeppelin flights over Dutch territory. Holland, eager to show England in the wrong, could not afford to declare herself on the side of an ally which was pursuing piracy on the high seas.

In March, 1917, Great Britain went further. She insisted that a certain percentage of Dutch merchant tonnage should carry cargoes to Dutch destinations. This demand was promptly refused by the Government of Holland. Great Britain thereupon announced her intention of confiscating forty Dutch steamers held in British ports. Scarcely had the resentment over this situation come to a crisis than the United States entered the war and the resultant commerce agreement again fell heavily on Holland. Without having definitely violated neutrality, Holland had suffered terribly in the war. She had done a great deal for Belgian refugees, she had given largely to Red Cross purposes. She had suffered hunger and poverty by reason of a blockade which closed her ports, although the war was one in which she had taken no part. Her neutrality was not of a peaceful character.

The flight of the ex-Kaiser to Holland, after the defeat of his armies and the signing of an armistice, put the Dutch Government in an awkward position, again, so far as was determined at the time, through no fault of their own. It was not shown at the time that Holland had invited the Kaiser. It was not within the province of Holland to refuse him admission, nor to expel him on her own volition. No official action was taken either to welcome him as royalty nor as a distinguished visitor. On the other hand, no official action was taken to intern him. Guards were posted, not to impede his movements, but to enable the Dutch Government to keep informed as to them.

In the early part of December, 1918, the Dutch Prime Minister openly declared that the Kaiser's presence in Holland was regrettable, but that it was an accomplished fact. Right to the very beginning of the Peace conferences, Holland maintained the same position that she had held throughout the war, that of a country grievously injured by the world conflict, but neutral in the very letter of the law.

CHAPTER XLVI.

SWITZERLAND, THE EYE OF THE CYCLONE.

A Single-Souled Nation With Three Faces and Three Languages, French, German and Italian—The Most Perfect Democracy Existing—Geneva Convention and the Red Cross—Marvellous Organization for Defence—Refuge of the Hunted—Diplomacy of Independence.

"TO see ourselves as others see us," is occasionally well. From the Swiss point of view of democracy, the United States is left far behind. A Swiss will point out that the President of the United States, in war-time, possesses powers more autocratic than those which were borne either by the Czar of Russia, the Kaiser of Germany or the Sultan of Turkey. A Swiss will exclaim with horror at the president of a republic being also the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and the Navy, appointing his own cabinet, naming his own delegates to international conferences, taking over railroad systems, seizing international cables, ordering the passage of laws by Congress and trying to dictate to the people what party they shall elect to power in order that his personal wishes may not be questioned. For Switzerland is a democracy.

The Swiss, themselves, declare that their own absolute honest, non-party, non-boss government is the reason why they have succeeded in doing what has never been done elsewhere in the world, namely, creating a nation with a single soul out of three racial units, divided religiously, racially and linguistically, not only speaking three different tongues, but having customs wide apart from each other. Proceedings of the Central Parliament are printed in three languages, German, French and Italian. Of the population, which is nearly 4,000,000, the Protestants are over one-half. About 2,500,000 of the population is German-speaking.

At the beginning of the war the Swiss ranked among the best soldiers in Europe. Their army was at a high efficiency. In 1914 their national militia, in a far higher state of preparedness than the German, amounted to 200,000 men. Every strategical point of the frontier of Switzerland was fortified, and well fortified. Within the first six

months of the war Switzerland expended over $20,000,000 on military purposes, a very large sum for so small a country.

Germany tried bribes, big bribes; they were refused. Germany made threats; they were ridiculed. Germany established a very powerful propaganda; its agents were kicked out of the country. Not even the German-Swiss could be organized into disloyalty. Situated on the Alpine crests, dominating the passes, Switzerland would be a dangerous foe to rouse. Germany looked longingly—but kept away. President Motta of the Swiss Confederation (for the year 1915) explained Switzerland's position in the war tersely when he said: "Whoever violates our neutrality will force us to become the allies of his enemy." That ended it.

It should never be forgotten that Switzerland is the home of the Red Cross. This was the result of the Geneva Convention of 1864, amplified in 1906. During the present war, the work of Switzerland has been that of the Red Cross among nations. No figures have been computed to show the good she has done or the benefits she has conferred. To take one little point as an example: Throughout the war Switzerland forwarded all mail for war prisoners of both sides, free of charge, at a cost to the Swiss Government of $2,000,000 yearly.

Switzerland's Strict Neutrality.

Switzerland, however, was far from being a tame nation. On the contrary, she protested sharply to Germany, when von Tirpitz inaugurated ruthless submarine warfare. She dealt swiftly with a most nefarious scheme instituted by Germany of side-tracking and delaying trains containing incurably wounded, who were being exchanged with similarly wounded German prisoners coming from France. She deported Russian Bolshevists in a summary fashion when she found German-made intrigue to set one canton against the other. Nor would she allow her French-speaking cantons to show any partiality towards the Allies.

Switzerland has always been the gathering place of the oppressed. Every revolutionary and national movement in the world has had some of its leaders in Switzerland. Yet not in a single case has it been found possible to imbroil that mountain country. When Austria's armies descended into the Italian plains and Italy held them by the slenderest thread at Piave, either side was willing to make almost any promise to

Switzerland if she would join. Austria, especially, worked hard in the German-Swiss cantons to precipitate a revolt. The answer of the Chief Magistrate of one of the cantons was characteristic: "Sir, I do not wish to think that I understand what you are implying, but I will say that so long as there is so much Evil being done in Europe, so long will Switzerland try to achieve Good."

Once the playground of Europe, during the war Switzerland became one vast asylum, hospital and convalescent home. Hunger pinched her sorely, for Switzerland is not a grain country, and has no sea-coast. Yet the nations did their best to send stores into Switzerland, for it was known that political writs did not run in that mountain land, that the German cripple would receive the same as the French, neither more nor less. The Allies scrupled not about provisions sent into Alpine supply stations, for they knew there would be no trans-shipment, as there had been in Sweden and Holland. Swiss honor could be trusted.

Treaty Conferences Desired at Berne.

Foremost, as always, in the cause of peace, it was Switzerland which was the first to reply to President Wilson's "feeler" towards a League of Peace. It was her ambition to have the final peace treaty conferences at Berne, as being, indeed, the eye of the cyclone, the one calm spot in all Europe where the delegates could meet without being on enemy soil. The plan, however, was vetoed by England and France, the latter, especially, being desirous that the Germans should be made to feel that Germany was a conquered nation.

Finally, when after the close of the war, preliminary conversations and conferences suggested that Rhine-land provinces might be attached to Switzerland as German-Swiss cantons, semi-official statements were definitely put forth to the effect that Switzerland "was seeking no political aggrandizement." Secure in her mountain fastnesses, secure in her people's patriotism, secure in her 600 years' integrity, Switzerland showed the world, through four years of war that a little nation, possessing not even a single seaport, could maintain herself in strict impartiality, "unspotted from the world."

Book III

AMERICA'S PART IN THE WAR

Editor
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CHAPTER XLVII.

AMERICA AS A NEUTRAL.

Futile Peace Efforts—Financial Depression—Aroused by German Barbarities—Work of Helping Hun Victims Abroad—German Spies and Propaganda—Protests Against U-Boat Attacks and the Killing of Americans—"The Strict Accountability Note"—Re-election of President Wilson—Germany's Broken Pledges—Armed Neutrality.

THE position of the United States in the period between the outbreak of the war in the late summer of 1914 and her entrance into the conflict in the spring of 1917 was one of extreme difficulty.

Not even her most ambitious statesmen wanted war and the policy of the nation had been to remain aloof from entangling international alliances and to steer clear of the troublous diplomatic seas of Europe. Our representatives were in the great capitals of Europe, but they were there to look after the interest of the United States and her citizens in foreign lands and not to help settle affairs which did not concern America.

There were some who thought that the policy which caused the United States to rush to the protection of Cuba when the little island country was under the heel of Spain, justified immediate action when Germany overran Belgium, ignoring that country's right as a neutral. On the other hand there was a strong peace element. Both used their influence in Washington: one to secure action and the other to enforce a pacific attitude. One of the staunchest of the peace advocates was Secretary of State William Jennings Bryan, whose attitude when the Government was compelled to resent the action of Germany and threaten war resulted in his resignation and the subsequent appointment of Robert Lansing, of New York, as Secretary.

Immediately after the outbreak of the conflict in Europe President Wilson had issued a proclamation declaring the neutrality of the United States, and for a time there were protests made by the government to not only Germany, but to England and others involved in the struggle, against acts which were interpreted to affect our rights as a neutral. It was not until the German policy seemed to be directed

against America and American institutions that the Government began its long series of inquiries and exchange of diplomatic messages which only ceased when all threats and appeals were disregarded by the Imperial German Government.

The spread of the war through Europe had as one of its earliest effects on the United States the necessity for aiding citizens who were within the confines of the warring countries to their homes. Thousands of tourists and others in Europe on business were caught in the maelstrom and unable to secure money or obtain passports to guarantee their passage in safety from the stricken territories. The various representatives of the Government in all of the belligerent countries were besieged with applications for assistance and as the money exchanges were closed the United States was compelled to send funds for their relief. Early in August one of the government vessels sailed from New York with $5,000,000 to be used for the Americans stranded abroad and thousands of persons were returned on American, Italian and British steamers.

American Commission for Relief of Belgium.

The entire business world was affected by the breaking of the ties and stocks tumbled in the market and financial depression followed. Industrial and commercial interests, fearful lest the conflict spread, became sensitive and there was a tendency to extreme caution. Money became tight and the selling of foreign securities—those of the countries at war—and similar conditions nearly produced a panic. The New York Stock Exchange closed and the Clearing House issued certificates to prevent a raid upon the United States gold supply. There was practically no market for stocks and bonds and it was not for months that the conditions justified the reopening of the Exchange.

The improvement in the financial conditions was in a great measure due to the passage of the Federal Reserve Act and the establishment of the Federal Reserve Bank system in November, 1916.

The conduct of Germany in Belgium and France was early demonstrated to be of the most barbaric nature and Ambassador Gerard in Germany, and Brand Whitlock, Minister to Belgium, as the representatives of a neutral country, were quickly besieged with protests from the representatives and citizens of the invaded countries against

the cruelties and injustices practiced by the German soldiers. Appeals were made for help for the refugees driven from their homes or whose farms, gardens and shops were destroyed or taken away from them.

A Relief Commission was appointed with Herbert Hoover, an American engineer, as the active representative in Belgium, and wide solicitation was made for funds and clothing and food supplies to care for the victims of the Huns. Boat loads of clothing, flour and foodstuffs were sent from the United States, and the work was done under Government supervision, and in co-operation with the Red Cross.

Ultimately Germany's attitude in the occupied territory compelled the withdrawal of Mr. Hoover and the work of looking after the sufferers was left in the hands of nations remaining neutral. The accomplishments of Mr. Hoover in organizing and conducting the relief work abroad were such as to lead to his later appointment as the Government's Food Director after war was declared on Germany and it was necessary to conserve supplies and food. All over the country during this period organizations and individual men and women assumed the responsibility of maintaining orphaned Belgian children and pledged weekly and monthly contributions for their maintenance without reserve as to the length of time the burden should fall upon them.

German Spies and Propaganda in the United States.

For a time the whole mind of the country was concentrated on the reports which emanated from the war territories regarding the cruelties of the Germans and the suffering of innocent men, women and children and it seemed as though America would maintain her neutrality and avoid war.

The awakening as to Germany's purpose and the system which she was employing came with the discovery that her organization of spies and distributors of propaganda in the interest of a greater Germany and the perpetuation of German "kultur" had secured a foot-hold in the United States and that attempts were being made to "Germanize" and to terrorize America.

The story of the operation of these German spies and their intrigues, if revealed in their entirety, would fill volumes. The very offices of the United States Government protected some of the German agents who operated under the direction of the German Embassy in

Washington, or through paid Consular agents at various ports. Early in January, 1916, for instance, the fact was heralded to the world that wireless communication had been established with Germany and the first message was sent from the aërial station at Sayville, L. I., to Germany.

Subsequent developments, some of which did not become public until after the war, showed conclusively that Germany had established wireless stations along our coasts and in Mexico and that her agents in charge of these stations were sending messages in violation of international agreements, or, after we entered the war, information regarding our military and naval developments.

Secret agents of Germany attempted to destroy ammunition factories which were supplying England, France, Russia and Italy, and to cripple vessels plying between these countries carrying food, wearing apparel or metals which it was feared might be of value in a military sense.

Insidious Schemes of the Teutons.

In San Francisco the Secret Service Agents arrested Franz Bopp, German Consul General, and Baron E. H. Von Schack, vice consul, and thirty others, who were indicted for conspiracy to blow up ammunition plants. Wolf von Igel, under Secretary of the German Embassy, was arrested in New York for complicity in an attempt to blow up and destroy the Welland Canal. At Baltimore and at Hoboken large piers were destroyed as the result of the explosion of ammunition set off with bombs.

Newspapers were purchased with money supplied by Germany and subsidized so that their columns would present stories calculated to create a favorable impression in behalf of the German Imperial Government. German-Americans occupying positions of trust and respect in their communities were found to be active propagandists. The German Singing Societies and kindred organizations were found to be merely agencies through which the German idea was to be developed in America. Millions of dollars were appropriated by the Imperial Government to pay spies and weak citizens of the United States who might be made to sacrifice their honor for a few dollars.

One of the insidious schemes was the Germanizing of Mexico, or at least the arousing of sympathy for Germany in that country for the purpose of bringing on war with America and thus giving the

United States sufficient trouble at home so that she would not attempt intervention in the affairs across the sea. It has already been mentioned that the investigations proved that the wireless stations in Mexico were in control of Germany.

But Mexico, in which a large amount of German capital was interested, was used as an agent also, to induce Japan to abandon her friendly attitude and relation with the Allies and join with Mexico in an attack on the United States. The revelations regarding this episode made by the Department of Justice include a dispatch transmitted by the German Foreign Minister Zimmerman at Berlin in January, 1917—on January 19—to German Minister von Eckhardt in Mexico City, in which the suggestion for the alliance was contained.

Attempt to Embroil Mexico With the United States.

Mexico for her reward was to receive financial support from Germany as well as secure for her portion of conquered territory part of Texas, New Mexico and Arizona. She was of course to participate in the glories of victory which Germany anticipated.

The instructions to von Eckhardt were transmitted through the then German Ambassador, Count von Bernstorff at Washington, subsequently given his passports, and were made public by the United States Government as follows:

"Berlin, January 19, 1917.

"On the first of February we intend to begin submarine warfare unrestricted. In spite of this, it is our intention to endeavor to keep neutral the United States of America.

"If this attempt is not successful we propose an alliance on the following basis with Mexico: That we shall make war together and together make peace. We shall give general financial support and it is understood that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory of New Mexico, Texas and Arizona. The details are left to you for settlement.

"You are instructed to inform the President of Mexico of the above, in the greatest confidence, as soon as it is certain there will be an outbreak of war with the United States, and suggest that the President of Mexico, on his own initiative, should communicate with Japan, suggesting adherence at once to this plan; at the same time offer to mediate between Germany and Japan.

"Please call to the attention of the President of Mexico that the

employment of the ruthless submarine warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months.

"ZIMMERMAN."

Among the particularly active agents were Captain Boy-Ed and Captain von Papen, military attaches of the German Government in America, who were given their passports and forced to leave the country. It was through Captain von Papen that much of the money passed which was used to pay the German spies, and what early doubts there might have been as to the extent of his activities was swept aside when, just at the close of the war, the British, after their advance in the famed Holy Lands, sent through to the United States copies of papers belonging to the Captain, which he had left behind when pressed by the British soldiers. He had apparently been sent to the great Eastern theatre of war to carry on his work for Germany with the Turks. The press of the British gave the Captain no time in which to gather up his papers and they were taken. Copies were forwarded to London and then sent to America. These papers furnished a link in the long chain of evidence against him and his kind.

Forged American Passports for Germans.

There was, for instance, the connection of von Papen with the activities of Hans Adam von Wedell, who late in 1914 devised a scheme to send German reservist officers in the United States back to their native land for service in the army, by procuring forged American passports for them. The scheme went wrong because when Wedell had sent one German home via Italy on a fixed passport the subject of the Kaiser fell into the hands of the British military authorities, who investigated the passport and von Wedel, whom the Department of Justice Agents learned was a nephew of Count Botho von Wedell, of Berlin, left the country.

He had, however, set the plan and left a co-conspirator named Ruroede, or Rurode, to carry it out. The latter made the mistake of buying a passport for his purposes from a Department of Justice Agent working on the case and his arrest followed. The plan was simple, as outlined by von Wedell, and as Ruroede attempted to carry it out. It consisted of buying passports from native-born and naturalized citizens who might "need money" and altering them to fit the

German officers who were badly wanted at home. Such persons were to make application for passports and then sell them to Ruroede at prices ranging from $30 to $100, according to how badly the reservist was wanted at home or how much he wanted to get there.

The most significant thing about this very simple case was the tracing by the Department of Justice Agents of correspondence and telegrams to show the connection of Ambassador von Bernstorff and Captain von Papen with von Wedell.

Investigation of the Spy System.

The extent to which Germany had succeeded in building up its spy organization in the United States was not, however, revealed in all its ramifications until the end of the war, when the Senate Committee investigating the activities of brewers and German propaganda brought to light facts obtained by the Department of Justice. A. Bruce Belaski,, chief of the Department of Justice, testified before the Committee that Germany had spent $7,500,000 for its propaganda campaign in the United States, which was taken from a fund of $27,000,000 held by the German Embassy in Washington. Letters from Count Bernstorff to German consuls throughout the country were read, showing that the German Ambassador had urged the consuls to have all German subjects get out of plants producing war materials for the Allies. Letters were also read to show that a relief bureau was established in New York to assist Germans and Austrians who would get out of the war supply plants, and that branches of the bureau were established in various cities.

Chief Belaski testified that Captain von Papen, while military attache of the German Embassy, sent a letter to the German Consul in St. Louis, saying that two agents from the Brotherhood of Metal Workers in New York were trying to stop the shipment of ammunition. One of the men mentioned, Samuel Scollard, was among those afterward indicted in the trial of Industrial Workers of the World in Chicago. It was shown that German agents attempted to purchase the Washington Post and other publications.

Chief Belaski further testified that William Bayard Hale, who was sent to Berlin as a representative of the William R. Hearst publications and as the representative of a news agency, was under contract as a confidential agent of the German Embassy, and that he was em-

ployed also by a publicity organization created by Dr. Bernard Dernberg, the German propagandist, at a salary of $15,000 a year and was under contract from the beginning of the war until June, 1918.

A long list of names of German-Americans and others taken from a diary of Dr. Karl A. Fuehr, an agent of Germany brought to the United States by von Bernstorff, was read by the Department of Justice head to the Senate Committee. The list was designated in Dr. Fuehr's diary as "important list of names." They were supposed to be those of German sympathizers or persons who might be useful to Germany.

One of the important revelations was that Bolo Pasha, executed in France as a spy, was in touch with the German Embassy in Washington shortly after the war began. The beginning of the German propaganda was in 1914, Chief Belaski said, when Dr. Dernberg and Dr. Albert formed an organization with offices at 1123 Broadway, New York, and made efforts to secure control of certain newspapers, among them the New York Sun. It was also sworn that Dernberg's notes showed that it was proposed to organize a society that was to conduct propaganda among the Irish in favor of Germany.

The Justification for America Entering the War.

So far as precipitating America into the war was concerned it was the submarine campaign that furnished the "straw which broke the camel's back." The subject had been one of continued discussion for two years, or from the time that Germany announced the waters around Great Britain and Ireland, including the British Channel, constituted a war zone which might be passed through only with risk. In reply to this announcement the then Secretary Bryan issued a note to the Imperial German Government notifying it that America intended to hold the German Government to "strict accountability" for the sacrifice of any American lives.

Germany had attacked half a dozen vessels of neutral countries on which were American citizens and through successive stages and with each recurring attack there had been diplomatic correspondence —protests from America and assurances from Germany—until the cross-Channel steamer Sussex, a French boat, was torpedoed and the lives of twenty-five Americans imperilled.

This incident precipitated the first ultimatum of America to Ger-

many. Secretary Lansing, appointed to succeed Secretary Bryan, issued a note to the German Government in which it was stated, "Unless the Imperial Government should now immediately declare and effect an abandonment of its present methods of submarine warfare against passenger and freight-carrying vessels the Government of the United States can have no choice but to sever diplomatic relations with the German Empire altogether."

America had disputed the right of Germany to maintain or define any such war zone and contended that neutral vessels should, in accordance with international usage, be visited and searched for evidence of violation of the laws of warfare before being attacked. Germany had in reply declared that the zone was established as a reprisal for the blockade which Great Britain had established with her war fleet and that if the United States would prevail upon Germany's enemies to abandon their methods of maritime warfare Germany would in return modify her submarine order.

Sinking the Lusitania.

President Wilson had sent an "identic" note to Germany and Great Britain suggesting the cessation of illegal activities and a discussion and an agreement on the point. Germany replied that a definite statement would be reserved until it was learned what obligations the British Government would assume in the matter.

Meantime the British steamship Falaba was sunk by a submarine on March 28, when 163 lives were lost. Among these was one American. Again on April 28 the American steamship Cushing was bombed by an aeroplane and on the first of May the American tank steamer Gulflight was attacked and sunk and three Americans were lost.

On this eventful day the height of German arrogance was demonstrated by the placing in American newspapers of a notice to the public warning them against taking passage on the Cunard steamship Lusitania about to sail from New York. The agents of the German Government also sent personal notices to prospective passengers of national importance, warning them against sailing. Few, at that time accepted the notice or the personal notes seriously, believing them to be products of the mind of some person obsessed with the idea of danger.

The warning was one, however, sanctioned by official Germany

and German agents in America. The Lusitania went to the bottom of the sea, as already indicated, on May 7, off Fastnet, Ireland, with the loss of 1,100 persons, among whom were 115 Americans.

Following in the wake of the other submarine attacks, the Lusitania sinking was made the subject of a new "note" to Berlin which concluded with the utterance, "The Imperial German Government will not expect the Government of the United States to omit any word or act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment."

The reply of Germany was that the Lusitania had "masked guns" aboard and that she, in effect, a British auxiliary cruiser, carried munitions and that her owners were in reality responsible for the loss of American lives since they risked passage through the danger zone. It was proved beyond dispute that the vessel was neither armed nor carried munitions, but that did not satisfy Germany, who was seeking for excuses to justify her acts.

Germany's Unreliable Assurances.

No satisfactory position was assumed by Germany in the Lusitania matter, though the Imperial German Government did admit its error in attacking the Cushing and Gulflight, promising to pay damages in the cases.

It was during the exchange of notes on the submarine warfare that Doctor Dumba, the Austrian Ambassador at Washington, and representative of the German clique, interfered in the affairs of the country and was recalled at the instance of President Wilson. He had notified Berlin that the Secretary of State had intimated to Count von Bernstorff that the vigorous tone of the American notes were not to be regarded as too warlike.

Another note of protest from America brought from Foreign Minister von Jagow what was in effect an address to the American people. The nature of the reply was of such tone as to indicate that it was the intention of Germany to use the submarine in a manner to compel America to use its power upon Great Britain to secure a modification of the severe blockade which was curtailing Germany's source of food supply.

Other notes passed, but things reached such a stage that the

controversy resolved itself into one for discussion between Count von Bernstorff and Secretary Lansing in Washington. In the meantime came a written statement from Count von Bernstorff to the effect that "Liners will not be sunk by our submarines without warning and without safety to noncombatants, provided the liners do not try to escape or offer resistance."

These and other assurances had been given by Germany when, without warning Germany issued notice of a new submarine policy under which all armed merchant ships were to be sunk without warning.

Germany's Prohibited Sea Zones.

In the interim a formal communication was submitted to Secretary Lansing by Count von Bernstorff in which Germany had agreed to pay indemnity for lives lost on the Lusitania, but the matter became dead-locked because Germany declined to admit the "illegality" of her act and desired a substitution of the word in the agreement.

President Wilson, who had in the meantime been reëlected president, largely on the strength of his conduct of affairs and because he had up to that time "kept the country out of war," had scarcely finished an address to the United States Congress giving his ideas as to the steps necessary for a world peace when Germany issued its restricted submarine note. This was on January 31, 1917.

The note declared that from February 1, 1917, sea traffic would be stopped with every available weapon and without further notice in certain prescribed zones around Great Britain, France, Italy and the Eastern Mediterranean. Channels were indicated through which ships might venture. It was stated that "neutral ships navigating these blockade zones do so at their own risk." Regarding Americans it was specifically stated that "Americans en route to the blockade zone on enemy freight steamships are not endangered, as the enemy shipping firms can prevent such ships in time from entering the zone." It was further provided that American passenger steamships might continue undisturbed after February 1, if the port of destination were Falmouth, or a certain specified course were taken and, further, that on the steamship's hull and superstructure three vertical stripes one meter wide be painted alternately red and white. Each mast should show a large flag of checkered white and red and at the stern of the vessel must be the American national flag. The United States Govern-

ment was to guarantee the carrying of any contraband (according to the German interpretation) on any of the boats.

At this point the United States severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Count von Bernstorff received his passports as already noted. The Swiss Minister in behalf of Germany took up the proposal to review the question and was notified that no attempt would be made to negotiate with Germany until the restricted submarine order was withdrawn.

President Wilson meantime announced that an armed guard would be placed on all vessels passing through the restricted zone, and the United States assumed a status of "armed neutrality." The next step would be war.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE AMERICAN CALL TO ARMS.

President Wilson's War Message to Congress—The Memorable War Declaration—The War Resolution—The Big War Program—German Ships Seized—Arrest of German Agents and Enemy Aliens—Big Loans to Allies—Raising the War Funds—How the Country Prepared.

THE doom of Germany was sealed on April 6, 1917, when Congress adopted a resolution authorizing the prosecution of vigorous war against the Imperial German Government. Perhaps no country ever went to war with such reluctance. A peace-loving people were forced to battle.

Protests against the barbarism of the Huns had gone for naught; even the severance of diplomatic relations had failed to convince the Prussian geniuses that the United States would actually join the Allies in bitter warfare against the "Fatherland." And if America did step into the fray, it was an open secret that the Kaiser's advisers held that since she was not a military nation, France could be crushed and England subdued before accountable numbers of United States troops could be put into the field.

This was one of Germany's greatest mistakes. The Kaiser and his leaders failed to read the signs aright, and in their ignorance and egotism they pulled the weight of the richest and most resourceful country in the world over against them.

The message of President Wilson in which he asked Congress to declare a state of war existing between the United States and Germany and to authorize the prosecution of the fight against the Imperial German Government constituted a classic in literature and one of the most important documents in the history of the world.

It was a clear presentation of the situation and a history of the events which compelled the break with Germany and making plain the purpose of the Government to wage warfare in the interest of humanity and for international peace. The President, who had reëstablished the custom of reading his own messages, appeared before the great law-making body on April 2, 1917, and while the whole world

tingled with emotion, made his memorable utterances, which included the following significant passages:

"The present German submarine warfare is a warfare against mankind. It is a war against all nations. American ships have been sunk, American lives taken, in ways which it has stirred us very deeply to learn of, but the ships and people of other neutral and friendly nations have been sunk and overwhelmed in the waters in the same way. There has been no discrimination. The challenge is to all mankind. Each nation must decide for itself now how it will meet it. . . . There is one choice we cannot make, we are incapable of making; we will not choose the path of submission and suffer the most sacred rights of our nation and our people to be ignored or violated. The wrongs against which we now array ourselves are no common wrongs; they cut to the very roots of human life.

"With a profound sense of the solemn and even tragical character of the step I am taking, and of the grave responsibilities which it involves, but in unhesitating obedience to what I deem my constitutional duty, I advise that the Congress declare the recent course of the Imperial German Government to be in fact nothing less than war against the Government and people of the United States; that it formally accept the status of belligerent which has thus been thrust upon it; and that it take immediate steps, not only to put the country in a more thorough state of defense, but also to exert all its power and employ all its resources to bring the Government of the German Empire to terms and end the war.

"We have no quarrel with the German people. We have no feeling toward them but one of friendship. It was not upon their impulse that their government acted in entering this war. It was not with their previous knowledge or approval. It was a war determined upon as wars used to be determined upon in the old unhappy days when peoples were nowhere consulted by their rulers, and wars were provoked and waged in the interest of dynasties or little groups of ambitious men, who were accustomed to use their fellow men as pawns and tools. Self-governed nations do not fill their neighbor states with spies or set the course of intrigue to bring about some critical posture of affairs which will give them an opportunity to strike and make conquest. . . .

". . . The world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace

must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

On the following Friday—Good Friday—April 6, 1917, Congress took the formal steps which plunged the country into war, adopting the resolution:

"Whereas, The Imperial German Government has committed repeated acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America: Therefore, be it

"Resolved, By the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled, that the state of war between the United States and the Imperial German Government which has thus been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared; and that the President be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and resources of the Government to carry on war against the Imperial German Government; and to bring the conflict to a successful termination all resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States."

Financial Preparations for War Immediately Started.

The formal Presidential proclamation declaring the country at war was immediately issued. It called upon the people of the country to unite and to exercise vigilance and zeal in the discharge of their duties and obligations and recited the restrictions under which enemy aliens should direct their actions during the period of the war and while within the country.

Once the step was taken there was no delay and President Wilson had the undivided support of all parties and factions in inaugurating his war program. Emissaries from England and France had convinced the military and executive authorities that a large army would be needed and plans were concluded at once for putting in the field a force of at least 1,000,000 men.

Immediately Congress authorized "an issue of bonds to meet ex-

penditures for national security and defense, and for the purpose of foreign governments, and for other purposes." The act appropriated $3,007,063,945.56 for establishing credits in the United States for foreign governments by purchase of bonds of our Allies and expenses incident to preparation and issue of bonds and certificates; authorized the issue of bonds amounting to more than $5,000,000,000, of which $3,000,000,000 was for meeting the loans authorized to foreign governments and $2,000,000,000 for domestic expenditure, and also authorized the issuance of $2,000,000,000 one-year certificates of indebtedness temporarily to provide revenue.

England, France, Germany and other countries had made large war loans and authorized large expenditures, but the Congress of the United States voted money with a prodigality that was astounding. Failure of the war program was not to occur for want of means. Immediately upon the passage of the foregoing, $237,046,322.50 was appropriated for the support of the army for the year 1918, and $3,281,094,541.60 for military and naval establishments on account of war expenses. This appropriation was the largest in the history of the world up to this time and carried with it the original $405,000,000 emergency shipping fund with which to begin the construction of a merchant fleet. An appropriation of $640,000,000 for the aeroplane program was also passed.

Immense Appropriation for the Army.

The chronological facts of the financing of the war and building up of the Army and Navy are not nearly so impressive as the recital of incidents. In its effort to provide the very best military organization and to give the finest equipment, the Government passed a $12,000,000,000 appropriation bill for the Army on July 6, 1918, which was the largest single bill ever passed. $3,000,000,000 of this was for ordnance and ammunition alone, $1,532,000,000 for transportation, $1,230,000,000 for clothing, $575,000,000 for machine guns, $347,000,000 for armed motor cars and $884,000,000 for the aviation service.

When it comes to spending money for an army the Ordnance Department will show the way to any other single branch of the military or government service. The sums set aside for the use of this branch are without parallel in the history of nations, and because the whole program was not carried out, owing to the sudden stopping of

the war—through Germany's collapse—it does not affect the general statement or the plan conceived.

The biggest sum of money ever spent for any single item in war or business was fixed as the amount to be used on the two-year program of the Ordnance Department. The sum was $12,000,000,000, or about one-seventeenth of the estimated cost of the war to all countries combined at the cessation of hostilities.

This vast sum was to provide, under the program, artillery at a cost of $230,000,000 for the two years. The products included the famous three-inch gun, or counterpart of the French "75," which cost about $25,000 each to manufacture; eight-inch howitzers which involved an expenditure of more than $50,000 each to make and set up ready for action—and from which but 200 rounds can be fired before the gun is ready for rehabilitation—together with larger sizes. Then the item for ammunition under the completed program cost $4,500,000,000, while $800,000,000 was set aside for machine guns at a cost of about $250 each. For small arms the item was $377,000,000.

Most Comprehensive War Program Ever Adopted.

For the support of the Army alone in a fifteen months, ending with June, 1918, the Government spent $4,412,000,000. The entire War Department expense for this period was $5,664,000,000. The total actual expense of the war to this same period for the United States was $13,222,000,000, or nearly $1,000,000,000 a month with fixed costs to bring the total estimated expense of the war to the cessation of hostilities to $20,000,000,000. These figures are interesting when taken in comparison with the cost of the Civil War for four years, which was about $8,000,000,000.

No more comprehensive war program was ever adopted than that which the Government set out to fill, including the building of aeroplanes and aeroplane factories; merchant shipyards, whole fleets of torpedo boats and submarine chasers and every device and instrument known to the needs of modern warfare.

In the matter of shipping the Government was somewhat in fortune that the German Government, when war was first declared in 1914, had in American ports some of the finest passenger and freight-carrying steamships afloat. These vessels were interned and immediately following the declaration of war by America against the Impe-

rial German Government the vessels were seized as an act of war. There were in all nearly one hundred, including the magnificent Vaterland, Kaiser Wilhelm II, Kronprintzessin Cecile and a list of lesser craft. The boats taken had approximately 640,000 gross tonnage and were valued at $100,000,000.

As indicating the attitude of mind of the Germans when the vessels were taken over the Government inspectors and engineers found that members of the crew had removed parts of the machinery, broken down engines and in every way tried to so injure the boats that they would be unfit for use—and because they were of German make it was thought that the parts could not easily be replaced here.

American mechanics, however, repaired all of the vessels within a short time and they were renamed and put into the Government service, and used subsequently for the transportation of troops sent to France to fight the Kaiser, as well as to carry supplies for the army.

Many Enemy Aliens and Draft Evaders Arrested.

The crews of the boats were sent to Fort Oglethorpe and interned. Immediately also agents of Department of Justice who had been tracing the activities of the German spies and agents in the country and all aliens of the enemy countries began rounding up those who it was suspected would prove dangerous. A report of Attorney General Gregory at the close of the war disclosed the fact that 6000 enemy aliens were actually taken into custody, though a larger number were placed in internment camps administered by the military authorities.

Nearly all of those arrested were men. But few of them were Austro-Hungarian subjects. Under the military regulation requiring the registration of all enemy aliens in the country about 480,000 Germans registered. Of these 260,000 were men and 220,000 women.

There were 23,000 attempted draft evaders arrested and forced to abide by the decisions of the draft boards as to their qualifications to serve in the army, and a number of propagandists and others were taken into Court on charges of conspiracy growing out of their efforts to influence others to evade the draft, together with others on charges of sedition in causing to be published treasonable articles, but in a country where the iron hand does not rule the percentage of arrests was not large.

There were in fact more arrests of consequence of persons charged

with committing overt acts, such as attempting to destroy ships, piers and munitions plants and factories. Conclusive proof of the attempts to destroy ships with bombs was furnished by the Agents of the Department of Justice. The records in the possession of the government and testimony produced in one case show that bombs were manufactured on the German Steamer Frederich der Grosse, of the German Lloyd Line, after a design by Dr. Walter T. Scheele, a German chemist, of Hoboken, and that the bombs were filled with explosives or fire-producing chemicals at Dr. Scheele's laboratory.

Several hundred bombs were manufactured, and it is known that thirty vessels which left New York alone had such bombs secreted on them and were fired or endangered. A couple of the bombs were found on a vessel which had reached Marseilles from New York long before America was drawn into the conflict. The origin of the incendiary devices was traced and a dozen men were arrested for conspiracy. Dr. Scheele escaped and fled to Cuba where he was later located. The others were convicted and sent to jail. The activity of the Department of Justice Agents, however, kept the destructive agents of the Kaiser well under control and there was comparatively little damage when the amount of war and industrial work done just before and during the period of the war was considered.

Great Financial Assistance Given the Allies.

The program of the Government in helping to win the war was not without consideration for the Allied Governments and during the sessions of the Sixty-fourth and Sixty-fifth Congress appropriations were authorized for $3,000,000,000 and $4,000,000,000 respectively for making loans to the Allied Governments.

The assistance given by the government in financing the war was a big factor in the development of the plants and organizations for turning out needed military equipment in France, England and Italy. During 1917 the Government advanced to England $1,860,000,000; to France, $1,130,000,000; to Italy, $500,000,000; to Russia, before the revolution, $325,000,000; to Belgium, $55,000,000; to Serbia, $3,000,000, and to Cuba, $5,000,000.

Up to September 3, 1918, a total of $7,098,706,666 war credits had been established with the Allies against which advances had been made by the United States of $6,337,764,000. Of this amount England had

secured $3,482,000,000; France, $1,780,000,000; Belgium, $144,030,000; Italy, $730,000,000, and Serbia, $9,005,000.

For its own war purposes the unique plan of selling popular war bonds was tried. The plan had its features, the educating of the thrifty workers and people of ordinary means to the habit and value of investing their earnings in Government securities, and the drawing into a second line of defense in the war a multitude who would have an economic interest in winning the conflict, aside from their patriotic inspiration. Four series of Liberty, or war bonds were issued up to the conclusion of hostilities for a total of $14,000,000.

The bonds were taken up by a total of 20,000,000 individuals throughout the country, a large portion of whom bought in the smallest unit to be purchased, a $50 bond. The first loan of June 15, 1917, was for $2,000,000,000. The second was the issue of October 27, 1917, was for $3,000,000,000; the third Liberty Loan of May, 1918, was for $3,000,000,000 and the fourth of October, 1918, was for $6,000,000,000. Each of the loans was largely oversubscribed.

Formation of the Council of National Defense.

The immense number of subscribers to the loans was a tribute to the patriotism of the people and to the efficiency of the organizations effected for securing the subscriptions. Financial, industrial, commercial and social, religious and philanthropic organizations united to help make the loans a success as a "win-the-war" necessity. In the exploitation of the loan the Government entered the field of advertising and publicity to a degree never before attempted, and the entire country was placarded with magnificent posters while publications were filled with blood-stirring appeals.

When the war clouds first threatened, far-seeing men of the nation began preparing for an emergency and the executive branches of the government were extended by the creation of auxiliary or advisory boards. The first step was taken when the Council of National Defense was created by Act of Congress of August 29, 1916. The law was comprehensive and provided for almost every contingency that might arise, covering almost every facility and activity.

The body as originally created was composed of the members of the Cabinet: Secretary of War Newton D. Baker; Secretary of the Navy Josephus Daniels; Secretary of the Interior Franklin K. Lane; Secre-

tary of Agriculture David F. Houston; Secretary of Commerce William C. Redfield, and Secretary of Labor William B. Wilson. The members of the Advisory Commission were Daniel F. Willard, transportation and communication; Howard E. Coffin, munitions and manufacturing and standardization of industries; Julius Rosenwald, supplies, including clothing; Bernard M. Baruch, raw materials, minerals and metals; Dr. Hollis Godfrey, engineering and education; Samuel Gompers, labor, including health and conservation of workers; Dr. Franklin Martin, medicine, surgery and sanitation. Walter S. Gifford was director of the Council and Advisory Commission.

Commissions, Special Committees and Directors.

Seven distinct committees administered the work of the Advisory Commission, with one of the Commission members serving as chairman of each committee. In addition to this there were committees on special activities, among the most important of which were General Munitions Board; Munitions Standard Board; Aircraft Production Board; Medical Section; Commercial Economy Board; Inter-Departmental Advisory Board; Co-operative Committee on the Purchase of Army Supplies; National Research Council; Committee on Shipping; Committee on Women's Defense Work; Committee on Coal Production, and Section of Co-operation with the States.

Subsequently, with the approval of the President, the general Council created a War Industries Board, which took up in addition to other duties the work originally assigned to the General Munitions Board. This body was composed of seven members.

The ramifications of organization multiplied as emergencies developed until there were almost endless commissions, special committees and directors. Some of the prominent were Purchasing Commission of the War Industries Board, Bernard M. Baruch, chairman; Storage Committee, Morris L. Cooke, chairman; Committee on Priorities, R. S. Lovett, chairman; Committee on Emergency Construction, Major W. A. Starett, chairman; Director of Steel Supplies, J. L. Replogle; Committee on Shipping, P. A. S. Franklin, chairman; Committee on Women's Defense Work, Dr. Anna Howard Shaw, chairman; Committee on Inland Water Transportation, General W. M. Black, Chief of Engineers, chairman; Committee on Coal Production, F. S. Peabody, chairman; Sub-committee on Universities and Colleges,

Dr. Hollis Godfrey, chairman; Sub-committee on Secondary and Normal Schools, Dr. Hollis Godfrey, chairman; Highways Transport Committee, Roy D. Chapin, chairman.

Under each section there were many sub-committees such as Mediation and Conciliation, as part of the Labor Section; also Wages and Hours, Women in Industry and Welfare Work, with smaller committees on Industrial Safety and Sanitation, Recreation, Correlation of Activities, Publicity, Legislation.

There was in fact a committee on almost every possible subject or activity, and in addition there was an official representative of the Council in each State with a Woman Chairman for each State.

The Railroads War Board was created early in 1918, but the attempt to correlate the work of the roads did not satisfy every demand of the Government, and the roads were taken over under a special Act of Congress and Secretary of the Treasury William G. McAdoo was made Director of Railroads, which were operated as a unit.

Confiscation of German Property.

In no other war was there such a mobilization of the resources, facilities and activities of the country, and "government ownership" at least for the period of the war became a fact. The question of output for any industry was determined by the authorized committee or director under whose jurisdiction the plant or industry came, as in the case of fuel, which was administered by Dr. Harry A. Garfield, with an administrator for each State in the Union. The Conservation of food was similarly directed by Herbert Hoover, with State Administrators and organizations to carry on the work.

In providing for the protection of the country the Department of Justice was enlarged as was the Secret Service Bureau, and United States District Attorneys in every district took care of the legal activities which were increased by the work of the Department of Justice and Secret Service Agents.

The confiscation of German property—or seizure of enemy property—as a war measure led to the appointment of A. Mitchell Palmer as Alien Property Custodian and a large number of plants and industries owned and controlled by alien enemies were taken over by the Government and sold. The individual everywhere was restricted in the rendering of his personal services, and if he were of military age

he must work in industries essential to war or answer the call to arms.

The Government itself spent millions in the building of piers and warehouses—piers from which goods might be loaded for foreign shipment with least cost and difficulty and warehouses convenient to shipping points which would hold supplies for the soldiers overseas.

The need of great quantities of everything to create, feed, supply and arm millions of soldiers in France made necessary these intensive plans of mobilization and direction of industry and almost every factory or shop with any considerable facility for rendering a particular kind of service was compelled to do a certain portion of government work.

The percentage of profit to be made was determined by agents of the Government as was the rate of wages that might be paid in many cases, and everywhere material was requisitioned to fill the government requirements. Out of it all stood the big fact that in a democratic government where the individual had been permitted to run his business without interference from the government, he now accepted the conditions cheerfully and thousands of owners of big industries gave their personal services and turned their facilities over without hope of profit to help win the war for liberty.

CHAPTER XLIX.

THE CREATION OF THE NATIONAL ARMY.

The Regular Army and the National Guard—National Army Conscription Plans—Drafting of Citizens—Recruiting—Camps and Cantonments—Training of Soldiers—France's Appeal for Men.

WHEN the United States declared war upon Germany, its armed force, while enlarged by the reorganization act of July, 1916, was not such as to warrant the assumption that it could serve in giving aid to the Allies in any offensive capacity. Up until the mobilization of the National Guard of the various States along the Mexican boarder in June, 1916, there had been in the country no concentration of armed forces at any time since the Spanish-American War and the entire regular army of the United States was represented by a personnel of less than 100,000, including officers and men, divided among 15 regiments of cavalry, 6 regiments of field artillery, the coast artillery with approximately 20,000 men and 30 regiments of infantry. Besides this there were the Philippine Scouts, numbering about 6,000, a regiment of native Porto Ricans and the United States Marines, numbering about 12,000. The Army Signal Corps had but 1,500 officers and men and the Engineer Corps but 2,000.

The Act of July 1, 1916, established a new basis of organization with 64 infantry regiments, 25 cavalry regiments, a coast army corps, brigade division, army corps, army headquarters with their detachments and troops; a general staff corps, adjutant general's department, inspector general's department, judge advocate general's department, quartermaster corps, medical department, engineer corps, signal corps, ordnance department, officers of the bureau of insular affairs, military bureau and detached officers.

The new law provided that the total armed force of the country should include the regular army, volunteer army, reserve corps, enlisted reserve corps and the National Guards of the various States, subject to call for duty within the borders of the United States only.

There were at this time 7,578 regiments of National Guards, having a personnel of 132,105 enlisted men, and 9,103 commissioned officers.

As an organization for keeping the peace and maintaining order wherever the flag of the United States waved the regular army was conceded to be one of the most efficient of military organizations and the National Guards had proved a ready and valuable force in dealing with internal disturbances, but as compared with the forces in the field of Europe it was lacking in practical experience and regarded as decidedly amateurish. Indeed the Guardsmen were not infrequently referred to as "tin soldiers."

That name proved a misnomer. In retrospect they pass before the view in a clear light, for they upheld every tradition of America in producing brave and heroic fighting units.

Men and Supplies in an Infantry Regiment.

When the United States entered the war, too, the form of organization provided for an infantry regiment with but 1,800 men, cavalry regiment with 1,250, field artillery 1,150, and so on throughout the units, but when it came to organizing an army to work in harmony with the forces of England and France it was found necessary to adopt a new unit basis, with the result that on the recommendation of General Pershing, selected to command the forces overseas, an infantry regiment was organized with a total of 3,755 men, including headquarters and headquarters company of 303 men; 3 battalions of four rifle companies each, 3,078 men, 1 supply company with 140 men, a machine gun company of 178 men and a medical detachment with 56 men. Each rifle company had a strength of 250 men and 6 officers. It was composed of a company headquarters—2 officers and 18 men—and four platoons, and each platoon included a headquarters with 2 men, a section of bombers and rifle grenadiers 22 in number, 2 sections of riflemen of 12 each, making 24, and one section of automatic riflemen with 4 guns, comprising 11 men.

The transportation equipment of a regiment consisted of 22 combat wagons, 16 rolling kitchens, 22 baggage and ration wagons, 16 ration carts, 15 water carts, 3 medical carts, 24 machine gun carts, 59 riding horses, 8 riding mules, 332 draft mules, 2 motorcycles with side cars, 1 motor car and 42 bicycles.

Besides the usual rifles, bayonets and pistols, the equipment for

such a regiment was increased to include 480 trench knives, 40 for each company; 192 automatic rifles, 16 to every company, and 3 one-pounder cannons commanded by a platoon of the regimental headquarters company.

Each regimental headquarters company consisted of 7 officers and 294 men: One headquarters platoon—93 officers and men—including a staff section with 36 officers and men; an orderlies section with 29 men, and a band section with 28 men. One signal platoon of 77 officers and men, including a telephone section of 31 men; 1 section with headquarters with 10 men and 1 section with 3 battalions—16 officers and men. One sappers' and bombers' platoon of 43 men and officers, including a section of 9 men for digging and special work and a section of bombers—34 men and officers. One pioneer platoon of 55 officers and men for engineer work. One pounder cannon platoon—33 officers and men.

The Selective Draft Plan.

Thus under the reorganization plan an infantry division on the fighting front in France was made to comprise 27,152 men, whereas under the 1916 law an infantry division comprised about 21,000. In the preparation for overseas duty the artillery and machine gun strengths were increased, making the ratio of field artillery regiments to infantry regiments three to four instead of three to nine as had previously been the case. A trench mortar battery was also added to the artillery brigade. The machine gun strength, it will be noted, was increased to 14 companies for a division.

In addition to these changes large numbers of special and technical engineer troops were authorized, including gas and flame service, mining, water supply, construction, engineer supply, surveying and printing service, road service and army pontoon; while in the line of communication there were the general construction service, engineer supply service, forestry service, quarry service, light railway service—including branches for construction, operation and the mechanical departments with similar service for standard gauge railways.

The experience of England in the early years of the war in trying to secure a sufficient increase of its armed force without conscription decided the military authorities and the administration upon the adoption of the selective draft plan as the only fair and impartial means of raising an army of the required size in America. There was objec-

tion to this on the part of many who felt that it was not in accordance with the theories of democracy as advocated by President Wilson and savored of Prussian compulsory military methods, but on May 18 the Selective Conscription Law was passed which compelled the registration of every young man in the country between the ages of 21 and 31 for military duty. Actually the law was one authorizing the President to temporarily increase the military establishment of the United States.

The passage of the law was somewhat enforced by the failure of the men of military age of the country to answer the call to the colors by volunteering in sufficient numbers to meet the urgency of the situation, although thousands tendered their services and a large number of patriotic Americans were already fighting with the forces of Canada, England and France. The registration took place in June and 10,000,000 were enrolled.

Method of Conscripting Men.

Draft boards were appointed in every district, with whom those within the prescribed age registered. The method of deciding who should be first called for duty was designed to eliminate any possible favoritism and to give every man a fair and equal chance. For chance did play a part. The quota of men to be drawn from each registration district was based upon a percentage of population.

The registrants in each registration district were numbered consecutively from 1 upward, so that in each district there was a man number 1 and a man number 2 and so on. Major General Enoch J. Crowder had charge of the drafting of the men and the system of choosing the men was simplicity itself. Numbers were drawn from a big bowl in Washington. These were published broadcast and sent to the various draft boards. The number 269 was drawn. Every man in every registration district in the United States registered under that number was called by that one drawing. Sufficient numbers were drawn to provide the number of men required on the first draft, the first of which provided 600,000 out of the 10,000,000 originally registered.

Naturally single men without dependents were designated as the first to go, then married men without children or whose family support was not needed, and while there were a large number of other classes

the ultimate working out of the plan brought into the service few upon whom it worked a hardship, though many who could have found exemption did not claim it. At the same time there were efforts made by some to evade the draft, although in proportion to the millions affected there were comparatively few cases.

Never was such a comprehensive or highly efficient organization effected for creating an army in any country and within a few weeks after the passage of the Conscription Act young men from every section of the country were being made over into soldiers. From every sphere—from the workship and the exclusive club, from the home of the millionaire and from the lowly tenement home—youths marched forth uncomplainingly to take their places in the army that was to fight for World Liberty and to avenge the wrongs committed by Germany on the high seas and against Belgium and France.

Children whose parents and whose grandparents were born in America and young men who could not yet speak the language of their adopted country—who were still Italians, or Poles, or any one of a dozen different nationalities so far as their tongue and inherent characters marked them—joined the gathering forces and were welded into one great National Army, for it must be remembered that the American Expeditionary Force sent overseas comprised members of the Regular Army, the National Guards of the various States and those drafted into the service, specifically designated the National Army.

Lengths of Enlistments.

Regular Army men were enlisted for seven years with the colors, four years of which time must be in active service. Members of the National Guards were also enlisted for specified periods of service with the colors under the original oath of allegiance taken in their respective States. Afterwards they were sworn into the service of the United States for overseas duty for the period of the war. But the conscripted man was called to serve only for the period of the war. He was a business man called to turn soldier for the protection of his country and was expected to return to peaceful pursuits when the conflict ended if he were fortunate enough to be not a victim of the devastating conflict.

The resources of the country were rapidly being mobilized and the railroads, with which there had been considerable difficulties in trans-

porting troops from the various forty-five states to the Mexican border during the trouble in 1916, had agreed to a unification of their roads under the direction of a railroad War Board to facilitate the transportation of the embryo troops to training points, as well as to provide transportation for the forces to be moved coastwards for overseas service and to transport supplies.

There was some delay in getting the youth of the country into training camps because the taking of so many active workers out of ordinary channels for war purposes left a shortage which retarded the work of preparing camps. These camps or cantonments were located for the National Guards at Camps Wadsworth, Spartansburg, S. C.; Hancock, Augusta, Ga.; McClellan, Anniston, Ala.; Sevier, Greenville, S. C.; Wheeler, Macon, Ga.; MacArthur, Waco, Tex.; Logan, Houston, Tex.; Cody, Deming, N. M.; Doniphan, Fort Sill, Okla.; Bowie, Fort Worth, Tex.; Sheridan, Montgomery, Ala.; Shelby, Hattiesburg, Miss.; Beauregard, Alexandria, La.; Kearney, Linda Vista, Cal.; Fremont, Palo Alto, Cal.

Locations of the Camps.

The camps to which the conscripted men of the new National Army went were Camps Devens, Ayer, Mass.; Upton, Yaphank, Long Island; Dix, Wrightstown, N. J.; Meade, Annapolis Junction, Md.; Lee, Petersburg, Va.; Jackson, Columbia, S. C.; Gordon, Atlanta, Ga.; Sherman, Chillicothe, Ohio; Zachary Taylor, Louisville, Ky.; Custer, Battle Creek, Mich.; Grant, Rockford, Ill.; Pike, Little Rock, Ark.; Dodge, Des Moines, Ia.; Funston, Fort Riley, Kan.; Travis, Fort Sam Houston, Tex., and Camp Lewis, American Lake, Washington.

There were in addition Reserve Officers' Training Camps through which more than 60,000 commissions were issued to attendants in 1917 alone. The first of the series were at Plattsburgh Barracks, N. Y.; Madison Barracks, N. Y.; Fort Niagara, N. Y.; Fort Myer, Va.; Fort Oglethorpe, Ga.; Fort McPherson, Ga.; Fort Benjamin Harrison, Ind.; Fort Sheridan, Ill.; Fort Logan H. Roots, Ark.; Fort Snelling, Minn.; Fort Riley, Kan.; Leon Springs, Tex.; The Presidio, San Francisco, Cal. A second series opened on January 5, 1918, at these places and later there were additional officers' camps opened in connection with cantonments, at schools and in connection with special branch training camps.

The building of suitable barracks or quarters in which to house

the millions of men who were to be trained for an adequate army was in itself a gigantic task. The day of the army tent for such purposes was passed, except perhaps to serve as temporary quarters. Millions of feet of lumber were required to build long, low rakish buildings in which to house the embryo soldiers; mess quarters, hospitals and lounging or recreation quarters. Buildings—fifty—a hundred of them —to create a city of board buildings within a period of a few weeks— to transport lumber to construct these cantonments in the furthermost corners of the country involved the expenditure of millions of dollars and untold energy on the part of army officers and architects, engineers and builders drawn from the industrial world of America and taken into the service of the government to help create the new army, or the things needed to make it.

The Routine of the Camps.

From 15,000 to 50,000 young American men in a single camp— Camp Meade had 20,000 and Camp Zachary Taylor at one time 50,000, including a central officers' training camp for artillery officers—constitutes a sizable army in itself, and such an army drawn from a body of citizens that had practically no military training, when presented for instruction gave to the officers in command a task to perform that was simply stupendous.

The training of an army in those days of 1917 and 1918 was not like the training that was given in the days of the Civil War. Perhaps the old veterans of that glorious battle were as good fighters as ever saw the light of day, but the men in the camps preparing to meet the forces of the Kaiser were to battle under new conditions, and besides there were new ideas as to what makes a good soldier.

Drill, yes, much in the same old way familiar to military men the world over, but in addition the camps must be melting pots in which the youths from every sphere of life must be inspired. The clerk, unaccustomed to outdoor living and who had not done a day's hard physical work in years, the young man who had never touched a gun and who was timid when in proximity to a loaded firearm, all must be taught to shoot. The soft-hearted fellow, who had a natural desire to avoid conflict and hesitated to injure any fellow man, and others with characteristics and peculiarities widely at variance with the ne-

cessities of military efficiency had to be moulded and made effective in an army, which, like a chain, will be as strong as its weakest link.

Moreover, the health must be looked after, the physique developed, the morals watched and the moral sense developed. The black man must be made to understand that he is as valuable as a soldier as the white man and will be accorded as fair treatment; the youth of foreign tongue who could not understand the commands of the officers and therefore was at a disadvantage until he was furnished with a military vocabulary in English, had to be Americanized. He had to be made to understand why he should fight when in all probability he or his parents departed their native land because they wished to avoid military service.

The second call under the selective draft was issued by President Wilson in November and provided for the remaining per cent. of registrants necessary to complete the army of 1,000,000 men as originally contemplated. By this time the work at the various cantonments was fairly under way and organizations were becoming effective. In addition to the men who had been called by the draft there were large numbers of enlistments in various branches of the service, and particularly in special classes.

Rapid Development of the Army.

A feature of the development of the military body was the use of publicity on the part of the Government to stir up enthusiasm and secure men qualified for the special branches and for officers. The volume of work required may be judged by the fact that late in the summer of 1918 it was planned to turn out from the various camps and schools 6,000 officers a month. There were, by way of illustration, graduated from the officers' training camp at Camp Zachary Taylor more men than from West Point in the entire period of its existence.

But even with the placing in camps of the hundreds of thousands of men the making of the overseas Army was not completed with their training there. What might have occurred in the ordinary course of events can only be guessed at, for while the American Army was "in the making" the long struggle which Great Britain, France and Italy had endured was having a telling effect on the morale of their armies and diminishing their forces beyond the point of ability to supply proper reserves.

It had been originally intended to finish the training of the army in America, but the military leaders, many of whom had been in France or England to study modern methods of warfare, were of the opinion that a sufficient force of military officers skilled in modern warfare could not be secured to direct the training of the forces.

When, therefore, General Joffre issued an appeal to America to send an immediate army into the field, largely for the purpose of inspiring the French and English armies and to carry the conviction to the people of France and England that America intended to do something concrete to help win the war, a change of the general program was made which resulted in the finishing touches being put upon a large portion of the force destined to fight abroad in the fields of France and Belgium.

Here there was developed a class of military leaders who in the later training days demonstrated the methods of trench warfare, bayonet work, gas bombing and the principles of gas attack in trenches cut into the hills of South Carolina, or New York, or wherever there was a camp. The result of the French appeal was to take soldiers more quickly overseas and to develop the Army more rapidly.

CHAPTER L.

THE TRANSPORTATION OF TROOPS.

General Pershing and Staff Sent to France—Secret Sailings—From Camp to Seaport—Movement of Trains—The Use of Former German Steamships—A Record in Troop Shipments.

THE assignment of General Pershing to the command of the American Army overseas—as Commander-in-Chief of the American Expeditionary Forces—marked a distinct departure in the policy of the United States in international affairs. Fresh from the campaign in Mexico, where he had chased far into the mountains Mexican bandits who had murdered Americans and raided and destroyed property along the border, he went to command the first American Army ever sent to wage war in Europe.

It was fitting, in more ways than one, that General Pershing should be given this opportunity and this honor, for the forces against which he was to direct his armies were those which had invaded Alsace-Lorraine and General Pershing's ancestors hailed from the west bank of the Rhine, where the inhabitants for centuries had been crushed by the iron heel of Imperialism.

General Pershing—John J. Pershing,—concededly one of the best military commanders and disciplinarians in the United States Army, was quietly summoned to Washington the latter days of May, 1917, and within a fortnight was on his way to France, accompanied by his General Staff, comprising about 60 officers, 50 enlisted men and a corps of civilian clerks.

A graduate of West Point in the Class of 1886, General Pershing had served as Indian fighter, campaigner in Cuba and subduer of the savage tribes in the Philippines. It was General Pershing, then a captain, who, in command of negro troops, got the Roosevelt Rough Riders out of difficulties at San Juan in the Cuban campaign. Colonel Roosevelt and the intrepid fighter became fast friends, and, as President, Colonel Roosevelt appointed him a brigadier-general.

After this promotion General Pershing became commander of the Department of Mindanao, in the Philippines, until 1913, when he was recalled and became commander of the Eighth Brigade, with headquarters at San Francisco, whence he took the field in the Mexican campaign.

The sending of General Pershing to France was the immediate result of the appeals made by the War Missions sent from the Allied countries. The most urgent of the appeals came from the French and British Missions, which visited the United States to confer on the war shortly after America's declaration. The British Mission, headed by Right Honorable A. J. Balfour, reached America on April 21 and the French Mission, of which Marshal Joffre was the shining figure, landed on April 24. It was the urgent request of the representatives of these countries that America give concrete evidence of her intent—visualize the fact that she was in the war—by sending an army at once to the front.

General Pershing Lands in England.

England and France were war weary; their man-power was diminishing and the influence of America would be greater if soldiers were sent. This was not in accord with America's original plans, and in the light of the amazing accomplishments of the United States in sending an army of more than two millions of men across the waters of the submarine-infested Atlantic, the difficulties which were confronted in creating a sizable army out of raw material and changing the entire program cannot be disregarded.

Few persons in America had thought of an army of a million men in France. There seemed to be an impression that the mere entrance of the United States into the war game would "frighten Germany to death." There were thousands who thought that an American army should be sent over to whip the Germans, but for the most part they were of the type that wanted the "other fellow to do the fighting." America, as matter of fact, had had no experience in dealing with or making a million soldiers or half a million soldiers, much less transporting them, and those who might have been willing to lead forces against the Germans were in nearly every case ignorant of conditions, of the training required, and of the sort of soldiering that would be followed on the western battlefront.

Soldiering in the United States had been a profession, but as a

matter of fact our best members of the military profession had to go to school again before they were able to deal efficiently with the situations which confronted them abroad. Nor did "going to school" once suffice. Changes in military methods were so rapid on the fields of Europe that General Pershing and the members of his Staff were frequently compelled to go into the immediate areas of activity to study at close range the developments.

The pioneer force of the American army landed at Liverpool on June 8, 1917. A guard of honor was on the pier when General Pershing and his little band landed and later the American Commander was received at Buckingham Palace by King George, who, in addressing General Pershing, declared that it had been "the dream of his life to see the two great English-speaking nations more closely united."

Secrecy Maintained as to Transportation of American Troops.

America was in no position as a military power to receive the praise which was bestowed upon her at that time for her primary activities, nor was General Pershing eager for the receptions accorded him in those early days of his "army building in France." When he landed in Boulogne the harbor was gay with flags and the quays were crowded with townspeople and soldiers from the armies of the Entente. Again General Pershing was received with full military honors.

There were later receptions in Paris, where General Pershing first established headquarters in the Rue de Constantine. An incident of the early days was the visit of General Pershing to the tomb of Napoleon, where he made a great impression upon the French in taking from its case the sword of the great military leader and kissing it. Nor was the incident ignored when he paid tribute to General Lafayette and placed a wreath on his grave.

Following the public announcement of the arrival of General Pershing a policy of secrecy was adopted by the Government with reference to the shipment of troops to France. This was done with the two-fold purpose of depriving Germany of any knowledge of the strength which might be added to the Allied forces and to protect the transports against the ravages of the sulking submarine. Even anxious America knew nothing of the forces that were being sent abroad. There was an air of mystery and expectancy, but there was no information.

For the first time in the history of the country, the newspapers

and other publications which for years had battled for a "free and untrammeled press" were not permitted to mention the name of a port to, or from, which a vessel sailed. A censorship not less severe than that imposed by the Imperial Government of Germany was enforced against the publications of the country. In tribute to the publishers, however, it must be said that it was largely a censorship of honor, in that the editors merely accepted the requests of the Government to not publish information which would prove of value to the enemy as being justifiable and kept their voluntary pledges. Without their silence as to the movements of troops and of vessels much that was accomplished could not have been realized without greater difficulty.

The world was fairly electrified, therefore, when, after days of silence, it was announced that on June 27, 1917, the first contingent of the American fighting men had landed in France without loss of life. The German submarines had found no victims among the first American soldiers.

50,000 Troops Crossed the Atlantic Each Week.

The nucleus of the First American Army Division was landed and there began the movement of troops which proved one of the most marvelous achievements of all times. All the facilities of the English, French and American Navies and the merchant marine of the Allied nations were applied to the transportation of the troops, but the great burden of the work fell upon English "bottoms" as carriers of the precious human lives and upon the destroyers, submarine chasers and scout boats of the United States Navy to protect the troopships from the ravages of the submarine.

No peace-time preparation had been made for such a contingency as sending the troops overseas and the task of providing a transport fleet was a big pioneer work. To facilitate the work it was necessary to have adequate docks, warehouses, lighters, coaling equipment and the machinery for operating and maintaining a reliable service.

This problem confronted Rear Admiral Gleaves, of the United States Navy, who was made Commander of the United States Convoy Operations in the Atlantic during the war. Co-operating with the British Naval authorities and with the Army officials, a veritable miracle was accomplished.

Approximately 50,000 troops were transported across the Atlantic each week with a loss of less than half a thousand lives during the

entire period from June, 1918, to the cessation of hostilities. The great movement had no counterpart in history, although there have been some interesting transportation problems in days gone by. In the Persian invasion of Europe in the fifth century Xerxes transported an enormous army, which legend says numbered five millions, but which is believed to have been more nearly 500,000, across the water-barriers of Europe by building a pontoon bridge over the Hellespont, between three and four miles wide. The Persians were reputed also to have had at Salamis upward of 1,200 ships, which was in those days a marvelous achievement.

Alexander, too, crossed the Hellespont at the site of the Gallipoli fighting by a bridge of boats, while the Russians in the invasion of Turkey in 1877 crossed the Danube over pontoons. Hannibal also achieved distinction in getting his mixed army over the Alps in the year 218, performing a historic feat in land movement.

Unification of the United States Railroads.

Next to the immense transportation problems solved in the Great War the most stupendous feat of recent times was that of the British in sending troops to South Africa for the Boer War, when they were compelled to travel 6,000 miles, or twice the distance from America to Europe.

In the successful working out of the plans for sending the troops to France not a little of the burden fell upon the railroads, and it was because of the necessity of having a perfectly co-ordinated railway organization that the roads of the country were primarily taken in control by the Government. Had the railroads failed in delivering the troops to the seaports the whole transportation scheme would have failed. America would have failed of organizing the required force in France despite the sacrifices of the Allies to make the work possible.

To place the transportation of troops on efficient basis within the country the entire system of railways was unified. Under the individual system of operation Pennsylvania Railroad passenger coaches were rarely seen upon the tracks of any other independently operated system, but when the troop movements began all this changed.

The men concentrated in the camps scattered over the face of the country were sent to central or coast distributing points for embarkation. The cars on which drafted men bound for a southern camp

had been transported from the north were used to send trained troops north to New York for shipment overseas. The trains were operated on the shuttle principle, going from one end of a trip to another, eliminating as far as possible the necessity of transferring men from one train to another. Eastern railway cars were found on the Pacific coast and western cars were found in the east.

The civilian traveler in New York was as likely as not to find himself riding over the tracks of the New York Central, Pennsylvania or Delaware & Hudson Railroad in cars of the Northern or Southern Pacific as in cars of the line on which he was riding.

Cost to United States of Transporting Troops.

Passenger traffic was concentrated on certain roads that others might be left available for the transportation by freight of the supplies and equipment of the men being sent to port for embarkation. Thousands of horses were shipped from Newport News, Va., and watched as carefully in the movement across the water as were the men who were to ride or drive them in war usage.

Roughly speaking, for every 1,000 men landed in France, 5,000 tons of stores were required annually. Consequently a very large tonnage was needed on the sea, which, in view of the submarine activities, proved the greatest problem of the war. To fill the need, Great Britain withdrew ships from African and Australian trade and endangered her own food supply. France with a very limited merchant marine and a small Navy lent for convoy service and transportation all she could spare and Italy rendered like aid.

The relative amount of work done by the various countries in moving the troops to France is shown by the figures compiled on the subject. About 48 per cent of the American Army were transported in British steamers; 3 per cent in Italian boats and a similar number in French bottoms. The remaining 46 per cent were carried by United States Naval transports. It cost America approximately $50 per man for the transportation, England's bill alone for this service approaching $170,000,000.

Troopships were guarded by United States Naval vessels—cruisers, destroyers, converted yachts and anti-submarine craft. The other convoys were provided by England and France, the former supplying the larger portion. In order to make the convoy and transport system

most effective fixed lanes of travel were determined upon, which is responsible for the largest number of troops moving from New York. The more lines of traffic the larger the number of convoys necessary to protect the lanes of travel. Also the concentration of effort was in the protection of the transport in its journey to France. In consequence there was practically no loss of life, though several boats were sunk while returning empty, or with a few convalescents or details of soldiers aboard. Among these were the Antilles, President Lincoln and Covington. Two others, the Finland and Mt. Vernon, were torpedoed, but not sunk and the United States cruiser San Diego struck a mine and went to the bottom.

At the time of the signing of the armistice the United States transport and convoy force consisted of twenty-four cruisers and more than forty transports of variable capacity, manned by 3,000 officers and 42,000 men.

A very definite idea of the growth of the movement and the sudden stopping of the transportation is contained in the monthly figures compiled. In the month of May, 1917, when General Pershing set sail, there were carried to Europe a total of 1,543 men; in June the number was swelled by 15,000. The number in July was 12,000; August, 20,000; September, 33,588; October, 40,000; November, 23,722; December, 49,000; January, 48,500; February, 49,239; March, 85,000; April, 120,000; May, 248,000; June, 280,000; July, 312,000; August, 286,000; September, 259,000; October, 185,000, and up to November 11, 12,000, making a total of about 2,080,000.

Nor were all of these men conveyed across the Atlantic on placid waters in an atmosphere devoid of the dramatic. There were tense moments, periods of anxiety and sharp clashes between the watch-dogs of the Navy and the slinking submarines, reference to which is made in the following chapter on the activities of the Navy in the war.

Through it all the thousands who hailed from hamlets and villages of America and who had never been to the seashore, let alone across the broad Atlantic, stood as bravely to their tasks as they did later in the fields of France and Belgium and helped make the troop transportation record of the United States one which will stand for all time.

CHAPTER LI.

THE AMERICAN NAVY.

The Force in Foreign Waters—The Naval Reserve—Dogging the U-Boats—The Convoying of Troop Ships—Training Camps—Sea Planes and Chasers—A Remarkable Record of Service.

THE American soldier and those who come after him for all time will remember the service which the United States battleships, cruisers and destroyers rendered to the world in holding in leash the German navy and the stealthy submarine and in making safe the passage of our Army oversea.

No terrific battles at sea marked their service, with huge guns sending enemy ships to the bottom or floundering shoreward. No blare of trumpets sounded over the waters to tell the world of the coming or going of the watch-dogs of the sea. Silently, steadily they patroled the lanes of travel and cruised the great North Sea watching, waiting for the slinking U-Boat and the cowardly German war vessels which never showed their noses in the open waters.

Maintaining all of the traditions of the American sea-fighting organization the Navy was in readiness when the first call to arms was sounded and within a month a flotilla of destroyers and cruisers was operating in English waters in command of Admiral Sims.

Great battleships co-operating with the British Navy and working as a unit of that organization in the North Sea held the German war boats in their berths, and on land the Navy came to the aid of the Army, sorely pressed for big guns, and utilized some of its great weapons in bombarding German lines of communication and railway centres when the American forces began their memorable drive against the Hun forces.

Again the Navy came to the front in building its own seaplanes, for while the private industrial facilities of the country were made available for the construction of aeroplanes and aeroplane parts for the Army Aviation Corps, the Navy Department built within a few short months its own seaplane factory and began turning out flying machines which proved as efficient as any produced for war.

At the outbreak of the war America had the third largest Navy, but it was in no wise comparable to that of Great Britain. There were 12 modern battleships, 30 of the older type, 10 armored cruisers, 5 first-class battle cruisers, 4 second-class cruisers, 16 third-class cruisers, 30 gun boats, 9 monitors, 74 destroyers, 19 torpedo boats and 73 submarines, manned by nearly 56,000 men. Five of the United States boats, however, the California, Idaho, Arizona, Mississippi and Pennsylvania were of the very latest of the dreadnought type. During 1917-18 there were added to the force 2 battleships, 36 destroyers, 28 submarines, 355 submarine chasers, 13 mine-sweepers and several tugs.

The bill which increased the Army and Navy authorized the development of the Navy to a force of 150,000 men, but three times this number were enlisted in the service. One of the means of increasing the force during the war was by the development of the full power of the United States Naval Reserve Force. This force had as its nucleus men who had had some experience in the operation of gasoline and steam launches, many of whom turned over to the government their boats to be used in patroling inland waters and harbors. From among these men with some experience in handling craft of the lighter types and from the Fleet Naval Reserve, composed of ex-Naval officers and men, and from the Naval Reserve composed of officers and men of the merchant marine, were drawn the officers of the great reserve force of the Navy which rendered auxiliary service and relieved the professionally trained officers of arduous but lighter duties.

Naval Training Camps Established.

As in the case of the army many training camps were established for developing men for various branches of the service, but with this difference. There was no draft of civilians to provide men for the Navy. The entire organization was developed by the ordinary recruiting of citizens. Those who entered volunteered for service, and at no time was there difficulty in getting enough men.

To provide vessels for the enlarged naval force the Government took over not only the German and Austrian vessels in port when war was declared, but also many vessels of private corporations and shipping companies that had previously been listed as possible auxiliary craft.

Under the direction of regular Naval officers members of the reserve force manned transports, operated the submarine chaser, patrolled the coasts and served as police around harbors. Thousands of young men took courses at a score of regular training stations as well as a large number established in the different Naval districts and at the principal colleges. Regular Naval training stations were at Portsmouth, N. H.; Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Charleston, Pensacola and Key West, Fla.; New Orleans, Gulfport, Miss.; San Diego, Cal.; Mare Island and Puget Sound.

Courses were also provided at various large centres for the study of navigation to develop men capable of relieving officers of greater experience in the merchant marine, and whose services were required in the naval service during the war. This was done with the further object in view of providing ultimately for a greater merchant marine.

Vessels for Destroying the Submarine.

The men of America who entered the Army went forth to face the Hun on the land, but those of the Navy and Naval Reserve forces faced the great elements of nature on the open sea and hunted the treacherous submarine. The world has marveled at the rapidity with which America made soldiers—and good soldiers—out of civilians with no previous knowledge of military affairs and many of them actually afraid of guns and weapons of war, but for real dramatic presentation, there is nothing in history which can compare with the results achieved in taking a young man without sea training and placing him in charge of a small submarine chaser to bound over the angry seas in all sorts of weather.

In the beginning of the campaign against the U-boats which were making ducks and drakes of the merchant-carrying vessels, the plan was to run down the slinking vessels, with the result that the Allies had thousands of torpedo boats, submarine chasers and auxiliary craft scouting over the ocean and around the places where the submarines were supposed to be lurking, or wherever a U-boat was reported.

The boats were armed with small guns and depth bombs and various other devices which might be utilized to destroy the submarine or hamper it in its operations. There were, too, nets and apparatus for the Naval authorities learned after the submarine campaign began

to reduce the Allied shipping faster than it could be rebuilt, that the easiest way to curtail the operations of the submarine was to compel the submarine to seek its prey and to so protect the merchant vessels and the troop transports that the submarine would have to expose itself to reach its victim.

As a result, practically every large merchant ship that crossed the ocean was convoyed by boats of the United States Navy or those of the Allied Naval forces. The ships, too, were armed to protect themselves against the submarines, and details of American sailors—gun crews—were assigned to every outgoing vessel. These vigilant young men scanned the seas and with their accurate fire drove off—yes, and sent to the bottom—many a daring submarine. But it was in the protection of the troop transports that the American Navy made a proud record for itself.

While England carried the largest percentage of the more than 2,000,000 American soldiers transported for service against Germany, the vessels of the United States Navy acted as convoys for vessels that carried approximately 1,750,000 men; in other words, about 82 per cent. of the men were protected by American Naval vessels, and out of the total number carried, United States Naval transports alone bore 900,000 men.

The Naval Overseas Transportation Service.

The high-powered, speedy destroyers on sighting a submarine made for it without ado and ran it down unless the submarine submerged, in which event depth bombs were discharged at points all around the spot where the U-boat dived. Hydroplanes followed the destroyers and looking down upon the waters helped direct the attacks of the destroyers or themselves dropped depth bombs on the undersea craft.

All along the coast of America and around the waters of England observation balloons—or what are termed blimps—were used to watch the water and detect the presence of the U-boats, while submarine chasers answering signals from Naval bases gave chase to the wary under-water boats.

In the Mediterranean Sea there were five Allied Navies co-operating in the protective service developed against the U-boat—French, British, American, Italian and Japanese, but on the Atlantic Coast the

French and American fleet provided the protective service, while on 300 miles of this front the American service was the predominant factor. As a tribute to the American service it may be stated that the losses on this front were less than on any other route of travel.

The Naval Overseas Transportation Service was an outgrowth of the recruiting for Class No. 3 of the Naval Reserve, and was developed when the problem of providing supplies for the Army in France was presented. There were in the service when the war ended 2,000 officers and about 42,000 men.

Just as it met the emergency by developing a service that would deliver supplies abroad so also the Navy met the emergency in providing seaplanes or hydroplanes to protect its vessels and aid in running down the submarines. Shortly after America entered the war a Naval Aircraft Factory was built at the Philadelphia Navy Yard. Actual work on the plant was started August 5, 1917. The original manufacturing unit was to cost $1,000,000, and was to be finished in three months. On October 16, 1917, the first machinery in the rapidly constructed plant was set in motion and so fast was the work carried on, that the entire plant was in actual operation before the building was actually completed. The first keel for a seaplane was laid early in November, and in March, 1918, the first machine made its initial flight.

United States Naval District in France.

Aside from building the factory the Navy Department recruited and trained a complete organization for the industry, employing many women who proved proficient in performing the fine work necessary to the successful building of the machines. The big, battleship-gray planes were turned out in sufficient quantity to send a formidable number to the American fleets in English waters and to supply Naval bases in America and in France, the plant having been expanded and enlarged in March, 1918.

Some idea of the operations of the United States Navy in France may be gained by the knowledge that actually 300 miles of coast were turned into a United States workshop. Aside from the American transports which continually operated from the ports developed for their reception there were stationed through the district about eighty ships—destroyers, repair ships, converted yachts, mine sweepers and Naval tugs. From his headquarters Vice-Admiral Wilson in com-

mand of this Naval district, with headquarters at Brest, was in touch with the entire 300 miles of front by wireless. Besides the naval operations there was a steady march of vast naval construction at all ports along the three hundred miles, with repair plants, fuel stations, oil tanks, water marks and all the requirements of a great naval station expanding to the very last.

The Navy, too, not only used its great guns to help the Army, but it built giant guns for use on land and constructed the mounts for them as well. It so happened that the Navy had some big guns on hand at the time that the Allies needed big guns more than anything else on the western front.

Destructiveness of American Big Guns.

The Naval authorities said they could provide the big guns wanted. They asked for bids and in twenty-nine days completed all plans for mounting and using the guns. Special big railroad trucks were made for the guns, and in April, 1918, the first big gun was taken to Sandy Hook proving ground and tested. By May 25 the last of the guns was completed. The guns required an equipment of armored cars and a locomotive to draw them. Included was a supply of 3,000 rounds of ammunition for each weapon. The guns were transported in vessels of the Navy and the first one was put to the test on the French Compiegne front and later such guns were used on the American front at Argonne. In both places they proved wonderfully effective, and they constituted a very important element in the offensive against the German railroad centre at Laon, for they smashed the centre from a distance of twenty-five miles. A shell from one of the guns struck a railroad station and demolished it and hurled a freight car from the tracks, tearing a hole in the earth twenty-five feet in diameter.

Everywhere the Navy covered itself with glory. As an illustration of the heroism displayed on all occasions, the story of the fight made by the crew of the United States battleship Mount Vernon on September 5, 1918, when attacked by a submarine and torpedoed, is given. Thirty-six men were killed, thirteen severely injured and a score of others slightly hurt. sweeping the waters free of mines laid by the submarines. But

The official report points to two instances of bravery of the firemen that give a fair picture of the morale of the men aboard the Mount

Vernon. "The profound shock of the explosion," the statement reads, by way of preface to the relation of the subsequent events, "was followed by instant darkness, falling soot and particles, the certain knowledge that they were far below the water level, enclosed practically in a trap, the instant danger of the ship sinking, the added threat of the boilers exploding—all these dangers must have been apparent to the men below, and yet not one man wavered in standing by his post of duty. No better example can possibly be given of the wonderful fact that with a brave and disciplined body of men all things are possible."

C. L. O'Connor, water tender, who was in one of the flooded firerooms, was thrown to the floor by the explosion and enveloped in flames from the burning gases from the furnace. But he did not attempt to escape. His first thought was to save the ship. He endeavored to shut a water-tight door leading into a bunker abaft the fireroom. Unfortunately the hydraulic lever that operated this door had been injured by the shock and failed to work. The three men who died in this bunker would be alive today had O'Connor succeeded in his undertaking.

Miraculous Escapes From Death.

After failing to shut the door O'Connor, the clothes ripped off his body, his body burnt by the gaseous flames, was caught in the swirl of inrushing water and thrust up a ventilator leading to the upper deck. He was pulled through the ventilator by a rope lowered from the deck.

Continuing, the official statement tells the miraculous escapes of others of the crew:

"The torpedo exploded on a bulkhead separating two firerooms, the explosive effect being apparently about equal in both firerooms, yet in one fireroom not one man was saved, while in the other fireroom two men were saved. The explosion blasted through the outer and inner skin of the vessel and through an intervening coal bunker and bulkhead, hurling overboard seven hundred and fifty tons of coal. The two men saved were working the fires within thirty feet of the explosion, and just below the level where the torpedo struck.

"It is difficult to see how it was possible for these men to have escaped the shower of debris, coal and water that must instantly have

followed the explosion. However, the two men were not only saved, but seemed to have retained full possession of their faculties. Both of them were knocked down and blown across the fireroom. Their sensations were first a shower of flying coal, followed by an overwhelming inrush of water that swirled them round and round and finally thrust them up against the gratings above the top of the firerooms. Both of them fortunately struck exit openings in the gratings and escaped. One of them, P. Fitzgerald, after landing on the lower end of the lower grating and while groping his way through the darkness to find the ladder leading above, stumbled over the body of a man lying on the grating. He at first thought the man dead, but on second impulse he turned and led him to safety. The man had been stunned into semi-consciousness and would undoubtedly have been lost if Fitzgerald had not aroused him. As a matter of fact the water rose at once ten feet above this grating as the ship settled to the increased draft."

High-Spirited Morale of the Crew.

At the time of the submarine attack all the men not on watch were at breakfast in the messroom on the lowest deck aft. There was a rush for the exit hatch when the explosion came. For a moment it looked as if a wild panic would follow. One of the men, Buckley by name, taking in the situation at a glance, jumped upon one of the steps, yelling, "Remember, boys, we are all Americans, and it's only one hit." He quickly gave the impression to the men that as long as the submarine was not given a chance to land another torpedo the Mount Vernon was saved. Instead of abandoning their stations, the men turned in perfect order to their collision quarter stations and immediately bent their efforts to saving the ship.

In the message to Captain Dismukes, who distinguished himself by his splendid command of the situation during the emergency, Secretary of War Baker says: "With your lost comrades, you who have been mercifully saved have added another page to the navy's best traditions. . . . The high-spirited morale of its men and the masterful seamanship of its captain and officers make such a stirring story of heroism that I wish all the nations might know the splendid way in which the huge transport met and foiled the attempt to destroy it at sea. The traditions of your service are enriched by the conduct in this emergency."

One of the most remarkable features of the fight between the American battleship and the German sea raider was that seven seconds before the torpedo actually tore in the side of the ship, a well-aimed shot at the periscope was fired from one of the ship's guns. This was followed by a barrage of five depths bombs, 200 feet apart, the entire operation lasting a minute and twenty seconds after the torpedoing. This quick action on the part of the crew prevented a second torpedo.

This was a result of remarkable discipline and cool headedness. There was not the slightest confusion or thought of abandoning the boat. Every man realized that being struck by one torpedo would not result in the sinking of the boat. Thanks to the fine discipline of the crew, the Mount Vernon safely reached a French port 250 miles away from the scene of the fighting.

And when the German fleet finally surrendered after the armistice was signed, and was taken in charge by the British Naval authorities, Rear Admiral Hugh Rodman and Vice Admiral Sims occupied honored positions with Admiral Sir David Beatty of the British Fleet in receiving the German boats near the Firth of Forth off the coast of Scotland. In the line of British battleships that received the surrendering German boats were the United States battleships New York, Texas, Arkansas, Wyoming and Florida, all of which stood ready to fire every gun within forty seconds at a signal from Admiral Rodman.

The Atlantic Fleet in European waters was in command of Admiral Mayo, with Read Admiral Rodman in command of Division 6, composed of dreadnoughts, and Rear Admiral Thomas S. Rodgers in command of Division 9, including the battleship Utah, flagship; the Oklahoma and the Arizona. Vice Admiral Sims had a division comprising lighter cruisers and destroyers, while Vice Admiral Wilson, as already noted, was in command of the Naval base at Brest. Admiral Rodman's division operated with the British Grand Fleet and Admiral Rodgers' division was stationed on the west coast of the British Isles, while Admiral Sims was in the waters off Ireland. The Naval Transport Service, as mentioned previously, was in command of Rear Admiral Albert Gleaves.

CHAPTER LII.

THE ARMY ORGANIZATION IN FRANCE.

What American Hustle Accomplished—Engineer Wonder Workers and Fighters—Supply Arrangements—Training Camps and Methods—The First American Army—Final Organization.

ONE of the outstanding features of America's efforts in France was the manner in which a complete Army organization was developed under the most difficult conditions. It is true that the Allies, having requested the early sending of men to reënforce their armies, stood ready to render every aid in helping General Pershing and his staff, but the entire situation was new and there was no established precedent to guide the American military heads.

Methods that might be employed by the French or British could not be applied to the American Army. The American officers, with few exceptions, were without experience in such warfare as was being practiced on the Western front and none had ever been called upon to develop or command an army of millions. France was on its own grounds; Great Britain a short distance away, but the American force was to be thousands of miles away from home—far removed from its original source of supplies. Everything required for the Army must be brought across the seas, and the bigger the Army the greater the quantity of supplies.

The little staff which settled down in Paris with General Pershing had before it the task of building an effective fighting machine out of men who in the main were but a few months out of civilian life; to establish camps and training quarters, build supply stations, warehouses, transportation lines, repair shops, keeping step with the movement of troops to France, and at the same time study the methods employed on the battle-fronts and develop a military machine equal to the best that Germany could produce.

In the preceding chapter the arrival of the first troops has been referred to, and while they were received with great enthusiasm by the French populace and America heard reports of their landing with

pride, the little army was not such as to justify any enthusiasm on the part of the Allied military experts. There were highly trained marines and regulars, but the companies had been expanded by the addition of recruits, some of whom had no training and who possessed not the first indication of a military bearing.

But the landing of these men was like the landing of no other soldiers on the shores of sorely tried France. Beside this event, the reception to General Pershing and his staff paled into insignificance. The presence of the fighting men furnished to the people of France conclusive evidence that America was in the war and that her virile men were to fight shoulder to shoulder with the French, the British and the Italians and to provide the added punch to drive the Hun out of the invaded land. In all there were about thirteen thousand men—barely half a division—but it formed the nucleus of the American Army and it provided material with which the staff could work.

Building the American Army in France.

It was the force on which experiments were to be made. It was an army-in-the-making, destined to go into the Lorraine for training under British, French and American officers. There was a dearth of motor trucks, of mule wagons, and a shortage of practically everything needed to properly move the short division to its quarters, and yet General Pershing, who came down to the dock to receive them, viewed them with undisguised pride.

Space will not permit weaving into this volume the picturesque, the dramatic and the turbulent incidents which accompanied the upbuilding of the American Army in France, and no writer can present a more comprehensive view of the achievements of the Army abroad than is contained in the simple report of General Pershing submitted to Secretary of War Baker after the signing of the armistice and which the reader will find given in full in Chapter LVII. But there are some features on which it is necessary to dwell.

The American Expeditionary Force had as its bases in France the ports of Bordeaux, La Pallice, St. Nazaire and Brest. From there the staff was compelled to develop lines of transportation leading out to the front and to the supply stations built at convenient points in France. These it may be said were mainly established at Tours, Bourges and Chateauroux.

In the development of the bases and the necessary lines of transportation the American engineers, who threw down their tools at Cambrai in November, 1917, and joined the British in fighting the Germans, covered themselves with glory. Men expert in the construction and management of railroads left positions of responsibility and remuneration and went abroad to co-operate with the staff of the American Army and establish the most wonderful physical organization ever created by an army in a foreign land.

In the ports of France where before only small steamers had been able to anchor, the engineers dredged the shallow basins, built concrete walls, drove pilings and erected huge piers and on them set up warehouses and receiving stations. Electric cranes were erected to lift the supplies from the incoming boats, and railroads were constructed from these out to the supply depots, and then on out to the very battle-fronts.

Marvelous Work of the American Engineers.

More than 45,000 men were sent to France to engage in this engineering branch of the service. They builded more than 800 miles of American railroad trackage for yards, sidings and switches to operate with a double line of communication from the coast to the battle-front, and taken over from the French engineers, besides constructing miles of narrow-gauge tracks in the sectors occupied by the American soldiers. More than 22,000 standard-gauge freight cars and 1600 standard-gauge American-made locomotives were operated on these lines to transport the troops and supplies, while a hundred narrow-gauge cars and half a hundred special locomotives for use on the lines of communication back of the fighting lines were employed. Nor should the refrigeration plant covering acres be forgotten.

Hundreds of great warehouses grew upon the fields of sunny France, a complete water system was established, and the building of these things was accomplished within a period of little more than a year in the face of the contention of the French experts that the facilities could not be developed in several years. There was, too, established a reclamation plant, in which vermin-infested and abandoned clothing, shoes and arms were sorted, patched, mended and made over to be sent back for use of the soldiers when they came out of the trenches teeming with filth.

There were laundries larger than any in the United States besides

the portable laundries used behind the lines to steam out the "cootie"-infested clothing of the men coming out of battle. There was an aeroplane assembling plant larger than any other in existence and a locomotive shop big enough to repair the engines of an entire American railway system, together with a motor-truck plant in which broken-down trucks were made over and new trucks made out of parts of old ones. And there was a picturesque studio or workshop in which artists, artisans and engineers worked together to produce camouflage.

Iron trestles that looked like lines of trees and over which supply trains ran; drops and curtains that would win the plaudits of any audience if shown as part of a theatrical extravaganza, but which were used to conceal important passes, imitation trees that concealed machine-guns—all manner of misleading devices were created and colored here.

Immense Quantities of Steel, Iron, Cotton Goods and Paint.

A few figures will give some idea of the materials required by the engineers in carrying out their great work. There were supplied to the Engineer Corps in France up to September 1, 1918, 213,000 tons of steel rails for standard-gauge railroads and 64,000 tons of steel for narrow-gauge roads; 45,000 tons of structural steel, 7000 tons of corrugated iron, 16,000 tons of barbed wire, 16,000 tons of lumber—stringers, ties, pilings, besides other material purchased in England; 10,000 tons of nails, 2,000,000 square yards of wire netting for camouflage work, together with 3,000,000 square yards of burlap, 1,300,000 square yards of fish netting and 1200 tons of paint for the same purpose, and 2,000,000 square feet of steel coverings—roofing for warehouses.

Recreation centers and regular barracks, too, were builded, but the soldiers in training in territory behind the lines were billeted with the families of French occupants of the section. In nearly every hamlet and village American doughboys could be seen at any time in front of the little peasant homes or around the village inns. And if the French learned something from the Americans, the Americans, mothered by the French women as no other foreign sons were ever mothered, came to have a high regard for the culinary abilities and fortitude of the French women and never ceased marveling at their thrift and ingenuity.

The soldiers thus billeted went through their training under the

direction of French officers who had seen military methods develop along the Western front. Not only the American doughboy went to school, but his superior officers did likewise. A limited knowledge of French on the part of the Americans and a similar handicap under which the French labored in many instances added to the difficulties. Every step from drilling to the study of maneuvers was passed through, and finally the soldiers were paired with French veterans and sent into the trenches to practice and study methods at first hand. Infantry, artillery, cavalry, all had to undergo the same sort of training, and those who went through it first had to turn in later and instruct those who came after, though toward the end a larger portion of the preliminary work was done in America under the direction of officers returned home for this work.

Developing a "Man's Size Army."

Incidentally the General Staff had a considerable problem on its hands in co-ordinating, not to say satisfying, the various forces which America had already sent to the front. There were ambulance corps and welfare workers from half a dozen organizations operating on a sort of go-as-you-please plan; base hospitals sent abroad by private institutions and Americans by the thousands who were with the forces of the Allies in one branch of the service or another, not forgetting the famous French Escadrille, or Aviation Corps. All had to be definitely fixed in their relations, and detached young men found they must either wear the uniform of a United States soldier or go home.

While there was yet but one division abroad, General Pershing to be in closer touch with the military activities moved his headquarters from Paris to Lorraine, occupying an old barracks, which were rehabilitated. There the General Staff was built up and an organization perfected to take care of every branch of the service.

Scattering additions were made to the force through the winter of 1917-1918 and then the big troop movement reached sufficient proportions to develop a "man's size army" in the American district of France. With these increasing troops came more civilians, not the least important among which was a force of American telephone girl operators, who were summoned to serve on one of the most comprehensive and complete telephone systems ever developed in war. Many of these girls were selected because they could speak French and a large number

of them were on duty in stations almost under the range of fire at times. An idea of the extent of the system is contained in the statement that the mileage of lines exceeded that which makes up the service in some of America's largest cities. Nor should it be forgot that approximately 20,000 women were inducted into the service as nurses to serve at Base Hospitals in the war-ridden districts and at the front.

The first unit of American troops to enter the trenches was part of the First Division, which occupied a position in the Lorraine sector together with the French, and the first American gun to be discharged across "No Man's Land" was fired on October 22. On November 3, the unit received its baptism of fire when the Germans raided the trenches and killed three Americans, besides wounding half a dozen in a desperate hand-to-hand encounter. A day or two before the Americans had captured their first prisoner, a German mail runner, and Lieutenant de Vere H. Harden, of the Signal Corps, had the distinction of being the first American wounded when he was struck by the fragment of a bursting shell.

Creating the First American Field Army.

But the real participation of the American forces did not begin until April 28, when the First Division occupied a sector near Montdidier, and from thence on the activities increased until at the end there were 1,338,169 combat troops in France.

The First American Field Army was created as a definite organization in July, operating in direct command of General Pershing. This was a step in the co-ordination of the units, regiments and divisions which had been operating under French command.

The major combat army finally consisted of five army corps, constituted as follows:

First Army Corps, Major General Hunter Liggett, commanding: First and Second Divisions of the Regular Army; 26th, New England; 32nd, Michigan and Wisconsin; 41st, Washington, Oregon, North and South Dakota, New Mexico, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming and Minnesota; 42nd, or Rainbow Division, comprising National Guard Troops from twenty-six States.

Second Army Corps, Major Robert Lee Bullard, commanding: Fourth Division Regular Army; 28th, Pennsylvania (Iron Division); 30th, Tennessee, North and South Carolina and District of Columbia;

36th, Missouri and Kansas—National Guard; 77th, New York; 82nd, Georgia, Alabama and Florida—National Army.

Third Army Corps, Major General William M. Wright, commanding: Third and Fifth Divisions—Regular Army; 27th, New York; 33rd, Illinois—National Guard; 78th, Delaware and New York; 80th, New Jersey, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware and District of Columbia —National Army.

Fourth Army Corps, Major General George W. Read, commanding: 83rd, Pennsylvania and Ohio; 89th, Kansas, Missouri, South Dakota, Nebraska, Colorado, New Mexico and Arizona; 90th, Texas and Oklahoma; 92nd, Negro Troops—National Army; 37th, Ohio; 29th, New Jersey, Virginia, Delaware, Maryland and District of Columbia— National Guard.

Fifth Army Corps, Major General Omar Bundy, commanding: Sixth Division Regular Army; 36th, Texas and Oklahoma—National Guard; 75th, New England; 79th, Pennsylvania, Maryland and District of Columbia; 85th, Michigan and Wisconsin; 91st, Washington, Oregon, Alaska, California, Idaho, Nevada, Montana, Wyoming and Utah—National Army.

There were in addition the 81st and 93rd Divisions, unassigned to corps; six infantry brigades and a number of engineer, signal troop and machine-gun battalions.

CHAPTER LIII.

THE IRRESISTIBLE MARINES.

Organization—Their Glorious Past—First Overseas—In the Trenches—"American Shock Troops"—A Traditional Display of Heroism—On Marne and Meuse—Heavy Losses.

A LARGE share of the glory which came to the United States through the activities in France must be credited to the heroic work of the historic Marine Corps—America's soldiers of the sea—whom the Germans termed the "Teufelhunds."

The Marine Corps is one of the most picturesque organizations in the world, and there is no single body of trained soldiers comparable to them in many respects, for aside from being all that is required for ordinary military service the men of the Marine Corps are artillerymen, infantrymen, cavalrymen, engineers, sailors and gunners as the occasion may demand, and if morale is in point of question the Marine organization is conceded to possess it in the highest degree possible.

The Marines have been in continuous existence since 1789, when Congress passed an Act establishing the Marine Corps, although previously two battalions had served through the Revolutionary War.

The Marine is distinctive in that promotion in the corps goes by merit and not by seniority as in the Navy and the regular Army. For this reason any young man who enters the organization has a fair chance of winning his commission—which keeps the members up to the scratch. The very nature of the service promises continuous action, which attracts young men of spirit and energy, and it has been the boast of the Marines that they are ever on the job, and no matter how peaceful the times they are certain to find a lively field of action.

The Marines were the first to land in Cuba in 1898; served in the Philippines in 1890, and later took part in the fighting against Aguinaldo, the Philippine leader. They put down the rebellion in Panama in 1903, opened up the Panama Railroad, and in 1906 they again helped quell an uprising in Cuba. In 1909 they rendered service in Nicaragua, which was followed with further service in Cuba during 1911 and 1912,

while in 1914 they showed their metal to the Mexicans at Vera Cruz. The following year they were called to protect American interests in Haiti and to help put down the revolution, and in 1916 they were campaigning in Santo Domingo.

When the war emergency arose, it was but natural that the Marine Corps, always ready for service, was one of the first bodies to be taken into action, and it had the distinction of being the first—or of the first—regularly organized military force to land in France. At the time America declared war the Marine Corps consisted of but 17,400 men, but under the general plan of expansion and by special congressional authorization, the force was increased for the duration of the war to 30,000 men.

What the Marines accomplished in France other American fighting units accomplished in many particulars, and the recital of what these wonderful soldiers did does not, nor should it, detract one iota from the work of others who sprang into the breach with them, and kept the Germans from continuing their march to Paris at the most critical period of the war. Nevertheless, it was largely the heroic stand of the Marines which saved—or made possible the saving of Paris.

The Marines the "American Shock Troops."

The Marines, as part of the Second Division, First Army Corps, of the oversea forces, were called to stem the tide of Germans and thrown into the battle line on June 2, 1918, facing the enemy at a point nearest Paris, and where, should the Germans break through, all would be lost.

The Germans had been advancing at the rate of six or seven miles a day with forces that far outnumbered the Americans thrown in to stop them. The crack Prussian Guards were opposed to the Marines and their comrades, who stopped the vaunted German fighters and drove them back, starting the retreat which did not end until the armistice brought the order to "cease firing."

Thus the Marines became to the American Army what the famous "Blue Devils" of France—the Alpine Chasseurs—were to the French Army. They served as "shock troops" to break up the advance of the enemy at a critical period and to force their way through almost impenetrable positions.

The German troops had reached the Chateau Thierry section on

May 30, when the Second Division was brought up. Six battalions of the Marines were thrown into positions after pressing forward a distance of seventy-two miles from the rear. None of the Americans had had time to rest, and the movement had been so rapid that food supplies had not been brought up. With their limited field rations the men went in cheerful and filled with optimism.

Night found the Marines and their comrades sleeping in a wheat field. They were awaiting the advance of the Germans. It began on the afternoon of June 5. Across an open field the Boche hordes swept toward what is designated as Hill 165. The Marines did not wait for the waves of German soldiers to sweep over them.

The Fight in Belleau Wood.

With a coolness that was the marvel of the French observers, who were watching the events, they calmly set their sights and began picking off the gray-uniformed men facing them. Supported by accurate and intense artillery fire the Marines, than whom there are no better shots, mowed down the enemy with concentrated machine-gun and rifle-fire. The Germans fell in waves. The advancing lines marched over the bodies of the dead. The forward movement slowed and the lines hesitated. There came a break in the waves, a halt, and the enemy broke and ran to cover in ravine and wood.

The moment of brave open fighting, of facing the bitterest fire, of utilizing the methods that made American Indian fighters the greatest of their days, was at hand, and the Marines and their comrades set a pace in attack that excited the admiration of the world.

The German was not used to the sort of fighting employed by the American and he was mystified. His forces had run against a wall of defense that was impenetrable, and just at a moment when it had seemed that advance would be easy. Preparations were made to rout the Boche from the recesses of Belleau Wood, where had been set up nest after nest of machine guns.

They must be routed. The Marines set about to oust them. On June 6 the first attack began against the German position in which the Marine Corps suffered tremendous loss in order that the enemy might be driven back. Companies that entered that terrible conflict with a full complement of 250 men were cut down to 50, but the 50 did not falter. Officers fell and sergeants took their places.

Belleau Wood, overgrown and rocky place of concealment for German machine-gun nests which fell to the control of the Marines, will forever be marked as the final scene of one of the most desperate resistances in the world's history. It was here that the Marines proved themselves almost supermen.

Fighting without relief for days and nights they held the woods against the pick of the German Army. The German machine-gun nests were so arranged in pits, behind trees and in sheltered places that the approach to one gun position was swept by the fire from another. The guns ranged at cross angles.

In the first forward sweep the Americans had passed through the wood with awful sacrifice, and the main forces of the enemy had been driven back, the Marines following into Bouresches, which they captured, after desperate fighting. But the machine-guns in Belleau Wood had not been cleaned out and they kept up incessant fire.

Then the American artillery shelled the wood. This was kept up for two days, and many of the Germans were killed or driven out, but the remainder were to be cleared in hand combat. The Marines set out to silence the concealed and protected guns. The fact that they had been fighting for days without food in many cases, and without water, did not matter.

The Wood Cleaned of Boches by the Marines.

They were holding their positions, and had held them, even though the German command, recognizing the desperate situation, had called in relief forces and launched them against the Americans. The officers of the weary Marines had sent back word that their men were worn out; that their forces were decimated, but the order had come to hold the line at all costs, and the Americans, with renewed energy, held and fought off the fresh and numerically superior German forces.

Marines—some of them practically stripped to the waist—with uniforms torn, faces scratched and covered with blood, charged into the rain of bullets from the German guns. Sheer heroism and desperate, stubborn hand-to-hand fighting with bayonet and grenade were all that counted.

Not a German nest remained when the Marines had finished their work, and the American lines were definitely determined.

Those who would discount the effort of the Marines by attempting

to make comparison with the heroic stands of other troops may accept the estimate of the French as to the value of the Marine's efforts as indicated by the official order issued on the subject by General Degoutte, of the Sixth French Army. Under date of June 30, 1918, he sent forth this military order:

"In view of the brilliant conduct of the Fourth Brigade of the Second United States Division, which in a spirited fight took Bouresches and the important strong point of Bois de Belleau, stubbornly defended by a large enemy force, the general commanding the Sixth Army orders that henceforth in all official papers the Bois de Belleau shall be named *Bois de la Brigade de Marines.*"

Other Engagements in Which the Marines Participated.

For almost a month the Marines had been fighting in a veritable inferno, when they were relieved. But on July 18 they were again called into action at Soissons, and faced the vicious German machine guns, fighting and advancing until their forces being further decimated they were compelled to dig themselves in.

Again, near Limy, early in September, the Marines were of the American Division which took Thiaucourt and scaled the heights beyond it, suffering further casualties, and assisting in the capture of more than 3,000 German officers and men.

Later, in October, when the heroic task of capturing Blanc Mont Ridge, east of Rheims, fell to the lot of America, the Marines were of the attacking force which accomplished their object. The ridge was a German stronghold which had resisted many previous attacks, but the Americans drove the German forces back, and swept down the slopes and occupied the position beyond the ridge.

Approximately fifty per cent. of the Marines engaged in these fierce battles were listed in the casualties. There were reported 70 officers and more than 1,500 men killed, and as many more officers severely wounded, with almost twice the number of enlisted men injured. All told, the Marine Corps casualty list represented about one-fourth of the fighting force of that organization overseas.

A description of the part played by the Marines in the battle on the Marne on July 18, after the Belleau Wood fight, and which description is made part of the records of the Marine Corps historical files in Washington, was written by Major Robert L. Denig, of Philadelphia, and is in part as follows:

"The next day we took our positions at various places to wait for camions that were to take us somewhere in France; when or for what purpose, we did not know. . . .

"We at last got under way after a few big 'sea bags' had hit nearby. We went at a good clip, and nearly got ditched in a couple of new shell holes. Shells were falling fast by now, and as the tenth truck went under a bridge a big one landed near with a crash, wounded the two drivers, killed two marines and wounded five more. We did not know it at the time, and did not notice anything wrong till we came to a crossroad, when we found we had only eleven cars all told.

"We were finally, after twelve hours' ride, dumped in a big field, and after a few hours' rest started our march. It was hot as hades and we had had nothing to eat since the day before. We at last entered a forest; troops seemed to converge on it from all points. We marched some six miles in the forest—a finer one I have never seen—deer would scamper ahead and we could have eaten one raw. At 10 that night, without food, we lay down in a pouring rain to sleep. Troops of all kinds passed us in the night—a shadowy stream, more than a half million men. Some French officers told us that they had never seen such concentration since Verdun, if then.

"The next day, July 18, we marched ahead through a jam of troops, trucks, etc., and came at last to a ration dump, where we fell to and ate our heads off for the first time in nearly two days. When we left there the men had bread stuck on their bayonets. I lugged a ham. All were loaded down.

"We finally stopped at the far end of the forest near a dressing station. This station had been a big, fine stone farm, but was now a complete ruin; wounded and dead lay all about. Late in the afternoon we advanced again. Our route lay over an open field covered with dead. We lay down on a hillside for the night near some captured German guns, and until dark I watched the cavalry—some 4,000—come up and take positions.

"At 3.30 the next morning we were to attack. The regiment was soon under way and we picked our way under cover of a gas-infested valley to a town where we got our final instructions and left our packs.

"We formed up in a sunken road on two sides of a valley that was perpendicular to the enemy's front. We now began to get a

few wounded. One man with ashen face came charging to the rear with shell shock. He shook all over, foamed at the mouth, could not speak. I put him under a tent and he acted as if he had a fit.

"At 8.30 we jumped off with a line of tanks in the lead. For two 'kilos' the four lines of Marines were as straight as a die, and their advance over the open plain in the bright sunlight was a picture I shall never forget. The fire got hotter and hotter, men fell, bullets sung, shells whizzed-banged and the dust of battle got thick. A man near me was cut in two. Others, when hit, would stand, it seemed, an hour, then fall in a heap.

"About sixty Germans jumped up out of a trench and tried to surrender, but their machine guns opened up, we fired back, they ran, and our left company after them. That made a gap that had to be filled, so Lieutenant Sibley advanced one of his to do the job, then a shell lit in a machine-gun crew of ours and cleaned it out completely.

"At 10.30 we dug in—the attack just died out. I found a hole or old trench and when I was flat on my back I got some protection. Lieutenant Holcomb was next me, Captain Wilmer some way off. We then tried to get reports. Two companies we never could get in touch with. Major Lloyd came in and reported he was holding some trenches near a mill with six men. Lieutenant Cates, with his trousers blown off, said he had sixteen men of various companies; another officer on the right reported he had and could see some forty men, all told. That, with the headquarters, was all we could find out about the battalion of nearly 800. Of the twenty company officers who went in, three came out, and one, Cates, was slightly wounded.

"From then on to about 8 P. M. life was a chance and mighty uncomfortable. It was hot as a furnace, no water, and they had our range to a 'T.' Three men lying in a shallow trench near me were blown to bits.

"I went to the left of the line and found eight wounded men in a shell hole. I went back to Cates' hole and three shells landed near them. We thought they were killed, but they were not hit. You could hear men calling for help in the wheat fields. Their cries would get weaker and weaker and die out. The German aeroplanes were thick in the air; they were in groups of from three to twenty. They would look us over and then we would get a pounding. One of our

aeroplanes got shot down; he fell about 1,000 feet, like an arrow, and hit in the field back of us. The tank exploded and nothing was left.

"As twilight came, we sent out water parties for the relief of the wounded. Then, we wondered if we would get relieved. At nine o'clock we got a message congratulating us, and saying the Algerians would take over at midnight. We then began to collect our wounded.

"The Algerians came up at midnight and we pushed out. They went over at daybreak and got all shot up. We made the relief under German flares and the light from a burning town.

"We went out as we came, through the gulley and town, the latter now all in ruins. The place was full of gas so we had to wear our masks. We pushed on to the forest and fell down in our tracks and slept all day. That afternoon a German plane got a balloon and the observer jumped and landed in a high tree. It was some job getting him down. The wind came up and we had to dodge falling trees and branches. As it was, we lost two killed and one wounded from that cause.

"That night the Germans shelled us and got three killed and seventeen wounded. We moved a bit farther back to the crossroad, and after burying a few Germans, some of whom showed signs of having been wounded before, we settled down to a short stay.

"As I rode down, the battalion where once companies 250 strong used to march, now were fifty men with a kid second lieutenant in command; one company commander is not yet twenty-one. . . .

"To picture a fight, mix up a lot of hungry, dirty, tired and bloody men with dust, noise and smoke. Forget the clean swords, prancing horses and flapping flags. At night a gas-filled woods, falling trees and bright, blinding flashes—you can't see your neighbor—that is war. In the rear all is confusion. The general told me to hurry to such a place, all goes well, we are advancing! His staff miles away, all clean—one was shaving, another eating hot cakes—we had not had a hot bite for two days. As I reached my jumping-off place, wounded men, killed men, horses blown to bits—the contrast!

"We advanced ten kilometers, with prisoners and guns; and the bells rang in New York for the victory, while well-dressed girls and white-shirted men no doubt drank our health in many a lobster palace."

Is it any wonder that more than 500 Marines were decorated or the subject of official commendation?

CHAPTER LIV.

THE RED CROSS—MOTHER OF SOLDIERS.

Organization—Financing—Behind the Lines—On the Battle Fronts—Mothers to All—Ambulance Service—Hospitals and Night Raiders—Real Dogs of War—The Red Star.

A RED cross on a white field, waving in the smoke of battle, is the world's international symbol of mercy to which the eyes of the wounded soldier turns instinctively as he lays amid the scenes of devastation. It means the Red Cross, which knows no bounds of racial, religious or political separation. Wherever and whenever war, pestilence, storm or flood have wrought suffering, want or distress, there it has gone and brought relief. The American Red Cross is the perfected instrument for the relief of suffering. As such it found its greatest use in the world war.

Great Britain was the first nation which organized such relief, when Florence Nightingale was sent by the War Office to the hospitals of Scutari. This was during the Crimean War in 1854. Accompanying Miss Nightingale were 38 nurses, and when they reached Scutari they found veritable pest houses, with open sewers beneath the buildings. Contagions were taking men by the thousands. With her inherent ability for organization, Miss Nightingale brought order out of chaos in such a short time, and with such remarkable success, that she won undying fame as one of the greatest individual organizers of war relief.

In 1861, or just seven years after Great Britain sent her angels of mercy to the battlefield, the first proposals for an international organization to care for the sick and wounded were made. These were offered by Henri Dunant, a Swiss physician. Dr. Dunant had organized a group of volunteers to care for the wounded on the battlefield of Solferino, Italy, in 1859, and the results had been very gratifying Great confusion and consequent inefficiency, however, prevailed because of the multiplicity of relief flags, and Dr. Dunant at once recognized this fact.

Under the guidance of Miss Nightingale, Dr. Dunant formulated plans for an international organization to care for the sick and wounded, and these he submitted to the Geneva Society of Public Utilities. He suggested a single and uniform hospital flag for all nations, among other things. In 1864 an International Conference of fourteen nations was held in Geneva, Switzerland, the outcome of which was the Treaty of Geneva, known as the Red Cross Treaty.

In this relief treaty it is provided that hospital formations and their personnel should be treated as neutrals. How well Germany observed these provisions we all know by the dastardly attacks her land and sea forces made on Red Cross units during the great world war. Every one of the nations signing the treaty agreed to have an association of volunteers to assist and supplement the medical organization of that country.

The emblem chosen, and which it was agreed should be international in scope, was the cross of red on a field of white. This emblem is the Swiss flag with colors reversed, and was adopted in recognition of the fact that Dr. Dunant was Swiss, and that the Red Cross was founded at Geneva.

The American Red Cross Organized.

Official sanction of a Red Cross organization in the United States was given when, in July, 1881, "The American Association of the Red Cross" was incorporated in the District of Columbia. Miss Clara Barton was the first president. The United States Senate confirmed the Treaty of Geneva in March, 1882. In June, 1900, the American Red Cross was incorporated by act of Congress, and in January, 1905, it was reincorporated and granted a new charter, since in force. This charter provided for a permanent governing body, called the Central Committee, numbering 18 persons.

Although not a Government department, the American Red Cross is a relief organization with government sanction, and, as such, assists the army and navy whenever called upon to help care for the wounded and suffering. The president of the United States is president of the American Red Cross by election of the Central Committee, and not, as is often thought, by virtue of his office as Chief Executive of the United States. Representatives of the State, Treasury, War, Justice and Navy Departments are members of the Central Committee. All

Red Cross accounts are audited by the War Department, and an annual report is made to Congress by the Secretary of War. The national headquarters of the American Red Cross is in Washington.

During the world war there were thirteen division headquarters in thirteen large centers of the United States and one in Washington in charge of the territory outside of the United States; approximately 3,500 chapters, with about 15,000 branches and a great many auxiliaries; an adult membership of over 22,000,000 and a junior membership of several million school children. All home activities are under the direct supervision of these divisions, the work abroad being carried on by the War Council through commissions in all the allied countries.

Financing the Red Cross.

The division headquarters are mediums of authority and communication between national headquarters and the chapters under their jurisdiction; chapters are local organizations, in charge of a division manager, which has charge of branches. These are permanent organizations, and work for the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of Red Cross work in the community by localizing authority. An auxiliary is a temporary organization, composed of a group of individuals, usually a club, school, church society or other organization who are members of the Red Cross.

Membership dues supply all the funds for the conduct of the entire Red Cross organization, including the payment of salaries and all overhead expenses used in the conduct of national and division headquarters, local chapters, branches and auxiliaries. War relief is paid for out of the Red Cross War Fund. No expenses of administration in the United States are paid for out of the War Fund. When a dollar is contributed for relief that dollar goes for relief.

During the war Red Cross commissions were sent to the various countries in Europe for military and civilian relief abroad. In America the fourteen division headquarters conducted a similar work of relief. Thus it was that the War Council administered the finances of the organization. Approximately $45,000,000 was used by the American Red Cross during the first year of the United States in the war, in Europe alone, for relief work, while in the United States there was nearly $12,000,000 spent for relief work in the country's hospitals

and military bases. Government figures show that, in all, the total appropriations made for humane work by this organization of America, when this country had been in the war but one year, was more than $100,000,000.

Unprecedented sums have been raised and applied through the organization for humanitarian work. When America entered the war the fund balances in the coffers of the Red Cross at Washington amounted to little more than three million dollars, whereas, in the face of remarkable expenditures, there was, at the end of the war, more than fifty millions of dollars in the treasury. Because of the remarkable financing by the governing bodies of the organization more than $1.01 has been made available for war relief for every dollar contributed for that purpose.

Before the soldier ever reaches the battlefield he is befriended by the Red Cross through three agencies—camp, canteen and sanitary service. Emergency aid of all descriptions and such work as the distribution of sweaters, helmets, mufflers, socks and various kits are rendered at training camps, cantonments and naval stations, Red Cross warehouses being maintained at military bases. Representatives of the Red Cross continually visit hospitals at these places, and render all possible assistance to disabled soldiers.

Various Red Cross Activities.

At each camp the department of civilian relief maintains one or more representatives, who are always at the service of the soldiers. The prime function of these men is to relieve any anxiety a soldier may have about the welfare of his folks at home, and at his personal request to inform the Home Service Section of the society in his town. Thereupon a representative of this section visits the home of the soldier and, quietly and unobtrusively, renders the family any neighborly, friendly aid it can.

By the wonderful work of the Red Cross behind the lines in France the morale of the American troops was kept up to a high standard. Recognizing that its first duty to humanity during the great world war was the protection of the soldiers in France, the American organization started its work with the prime object of keeping the men fit for war or peace, and accomplished gratifying results.

Necessary to the Red Cross activities abroad at all times is the

problem of transportation. To minimize effort and expense during transport large warehouses were erected throughout the United States, and in these were placed the finished supplies from the various sections. Thence they were transferred in bulk to the port from which they were shipped to Europe. Upon the arrival of these supplies at the French ports they were conveyed in Red Cross motor trucks to warehouses throughout France. The supplies consisted of all manner of medical needs, foodstuffs, clothing, building material and agricultural implements.

Rest stations were established at the ports of landing, and were placed at junctions and railroad stations where soldiers were required to wait for trains. These rest stations consisted of from two to four barracks, 40 to 160 feet long. They included infirmaries, fully equipped, dispensaries, rest and reading rooms, dormitories holding from 40 to 200 beds, with shower baths and disinfectors, and restaurants capable in some cases of giving refreshments to a thousand men in an hour.

Helping Homeless French People.

One of the greatest works accomplished by the American Red Cross behind the battlelines was the fine aid rendered the French goverment in caring for refugees. When the German army invaded France hundreds of thousands of French people were driven from their homes and scattered throughout the republic. At one time there were more than one million and a half of these people. Among them were men and women and children of all ages and classes of society. In Paris alone there were at one time three-quarters of a million of such refugees.

The housing of these peoples was one of the greatest problems of the French government, and the Red Cross, in co-operating with the government officials, did much to solve the difficulty. The organization examined every house where there was any possibility for utilizing the space to better advantage, and at once recommended alterations looking toward the accomplishment of this purpose. A number of unfinished apartment buildings were completed by the Red Cross, and then furnished at the expense of the body.

In the ruined villages of France many pathetic sights were brought to the attention of the officials and workers. One of the hard things to overcome was the reluctance of the people to leave their ruined

villages. Practically every able-bodied man was at the front, or had been killed in the fight for freedom, and only the old men, women and children remained. With husbands, fathers, sons given to the cause of right, the one thing left dear to them was the home. Came the Hun menace, and home was but a smoldering ruin. Even then, however, the peasants were loth to leave the place which had meant so much to them.

In a mighty effort the Red Cross rescued many of them, and, where old homes could be made habitable, they were furnished, and the inhabitants supplied with food and clothing, garden tools and hundreds of other articles of prime importance. With the great reduction in births and the tremendous loss of men in France it was imperative, too, that every child in that country be saved, for in saving the children France was to be saved. Therefore the Red Cross gave very careful attention to the saving of the children. Wherever barracks could be found homes for the children were established, while medical centers, traveling dispensaries and even traveling shower baths were much in evidence.

Caring for French and Belgians Returned by Germany.

Another of the great accomplishments of the Red Cross in sorely tried France was the care of the repatries. These were French and Belgian people who had been caught behind the German line in the great drive of 1914, and were afterward returned to France and Belgium. Here they lived in captivity, working in mills, bakeries and on lands, possibly their own, and unqualifiedly giving their products to the Germans. In 1915 Germany began a systematic repatriation of them through Switzerland, more than half a million of them passing through Evian, a town near the Swiss frontier. Practically all of them were industrial discards of Germany, which thus efficiently stripped herself of human encumbrances. They were children under ten years of age, women burdened with the care of two or more children, and men past fifty, with now and then a younger man, ill or crippled.

Every arriving train was met by automobiles and ambulances of the Red Cross. The aged and infirm were at once given treatment and made comfortable, and all medical cases were at once attended to at Evian. Thousands of men, women and children with tuberculosis were given treatment, while thousands of those in better physical condition were sent to various parts of the country, in many cases to points

far from their former homes, and there were started over again by the Red Cross.

When the war opened there were 24,000 physicians and surgeons in the French republic, but within three years 7,200 of these had fallen in battle. In some districts of France containing a population as high as 25,000 persons there was not a competent physician during the war. In order to render the necessary medical aid the Red Cross established dispensaries and clinics throughout the country.

Hundreds of thousands of Italian refugees, compelled to desert their homes when the German and Austrian armies invaded Udine, late in October, 1917, were quickly transported from the danger zone by the Italian government. Then it was that the American Red Cross did a remarkable piece of work. Receiving a request from the American Ambassador to Italy for food and clothes in the middle of one forenoon, by the next afternoon the organization had sent its workers into the markets of Paris, purchased food, and shipped 24 carloads to Italy. Within one week after Italian retreat the American Red Cross was in the field with physicians, nurses, and ambulances, ministering to the refugees.

Commendatory Letter From Lloyd George.

In England the American Red Cross Commission worked in co-operation with the British Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A., both American and British, in furnishing relief and comfort in France to sick and wounded in the hospitals, and for general restorative work for disabled soldiers. In appreciation of the work of the American Red Cross for England, the following communication, signed by Lloyd George, was received from the British Government:

"I should like personally to express our profound appreciation of the action of the American Red Cross in contributing $1,000,000 to the funds of the British Red Cross. It is a gift characteristic of the generous and friendly heart of the American people. It will bring relief to thousands of suffering men and women, and will be a further means of strengthening the real understanding between the United States and Great Britain, which the former's whole-hearted entry in the war for liberty has created. I know that I am expressing the thought dominant in the minds of my fellow countrymen when I say that they will always remember this gift with gratitude."

In the relief work in Belgium, which was conducted from a headquarters at Havre, France, by a commission of the American Red Cross, particular attention was given to Belgium children and orphans. Homes were established where the organization had every facility at hand to restore the life and vigor of these children, on whom depended the hope of Belgium. As the battle line retired work of rehabilitation was started at once by the burgomaster, all the tools and needs for the upbuilding of the country being furnished by the American Red Cross. Warehouses were erected along the canals and highways of the country, and in these was stored the tools necessary for the restoration of the country, together with products as they were harvested by the heroic inhabitants of the country.

Comfort of the Soldier Chief Consideration.

For the good of the soldiers in the advanced zone—right up to the firing line—the Field Service Section was always on duty. This section handled the activities of the Red Cross in the hail of bullets and scream of shells. With the exception of the wounded there is no one in whom the Red Cross is more interested than the soldier in the thick of the fight. Supplies are ready for him when he goes to rest, and during the great war the Red Cross had these supplies right where he could get them without going very far to obtain them.

Canteens were established, and the men of the Red Cross showed remarkable courage and endurance. Some of them received the War Cross from the French. Living within reach of the gas bombs and shells the workers risked their lives for the soldiers.

A representative wrote the following to show how he helped his division meet an emergency: "When the Division moved into its present area the orders were to leave all hospital tents behind. On their arrival they found only French hospitals available for their sick. Desiring to organize an American hospital service the Division surgeon asked the Red Cross representative to see what could be done.

"The request reached the representative on Thursday, May 24, and on the afternoon of the following day, a four-ton truck containing two hospital tents, 24 cots, bandages and supplies was en route from Paris to the point selected for the hospital. It arrived the following day, and that afternoon, only 48 hours after the request had been received, the tents were up and the hospital in full operation. A call for 100 more

cots was received within a few days, and these were delivered on the day following the receipt of this request."

Red Cross tents containing baths and disinfecting apparatus were erected on the banks of small streams, and the men were given the luxury of the much-missed bath, as they returned from the work of slaying for a few minutes. Each one of these tents was equipped to provide bathing facilities for 1,000 men daily.

Outposts were enlarged and equipped by the Red Cross so that sleeping accommodations were available for the men who had been rendered temporarily unfit for service. These were made to accommodate from twenty to thirty men, and this work was warmly appreciated by the medical staff, as well as by the men.

The Terrible Burden of War Made Lighter.

Soldiers are mothered from the time they leave their homes for the training camp; on through the stages of development until they become good soldiers, at which time they are more able to stand by themselves; through the terrible first days of fighting when it seems that all the sky has opened and is pouring molten lead upon the earth, and the air is full of poison gases; then through the sickening sensation of the wound, or the even more horrible sensations of shell shock; thence to the hospital, and back home to the arms of the real mother. Food, clothing, tobacco, diversions and all those things which tend to lighten the terrible burden of war are and have been given by the Red Cross, and when the soldier is lowered into a lonely grave in a far country, there is the Red Cross representative who takes a photograph of the hallowed spot, and sends it home to the loved ones.

Co-operating with the government during the world war the American Red Cross organized ambulance companies, base hospitals and naval units, and turned them over to the government. It also enrolled nurses and organized them into units for service, and mobilized and administered volunteer effort for manufacturing relief supplies.

A naval unit, which is similar in character to a base hospital, is made up of five medical men, twenty-one nurses and twenty-nine enlisted men, detailed for service at naval stations. Naval units may, however, be assigned to emergency hospital work on hospital trains and ships. And innumerable of each of these units grew in the great war through the operation of the "Cross."

Humanity was the least consideration in the eyes of the Germans. They thought only of death to the enemy, and care not how that death was administered. The Red Cross emblem on the hospitals of the Allies had no significance to the depraved German mind, and even seemed to draw their fire when they were out on a night raid. Not for an instant did they hesitate, but crashed down their bombs, and carried death and destruction to the wounded and to the heroic attendants.

Perhaps one of the most picturesque of the many novelties of the great war were the real dogs of war used by the Red Cross in its work of mercy. These dogs were carefully trained to seek out those in need of help. Out into the battlefield they would go, with their equipment for the temporary relief of suffering tied to them.

At the beginning of the war the Red Cross adopted the dog as one of its helpful workers. Not only was he trained to be a good dog soldier, but also to give first aid to the injured. Having given first aid the dog races or skulks back to headquarters, where by a series of barks he enlists the attention of his human comrades. This having been secured, he guides them back to the wounded man. Dead men he pays no attention to. Having secured help for the wounded, and being supplied with a new first aid equipment, he at once starts a search for more wounded. How many thousands of human lives he saved during the great war will never be known, but in one hospital alone there is a record of 3,000 human lives having been saved through his efforts.

Even as the Red Cross is for the relief of human beings, the Red Star is for the relief of animals on the battlefield, and in all branches of service to their country. Thousands of horses and mules which were helplessly disabled on the battlefields of Belgium and France and the Near East have been spared needless agony, and tens of thousands which would have died after much suffering from sickness and wounds have been restored to active service through the activities of the Red Star.

The name Red Star was taken from an international movement which was organized in Switzerland in 1914, to bring about international co-operation and the neutralization of a special corps designed to look after sick and injured army animals on the battlefield, under a general plan similar to that of the Red Cross.

CHAPTER LV.

ARMY WELFARE WORK.

New Ideas in Training Soldiers—Protection of Health—Education—The Y. M. C. A.—Huts and Canteens—The Salvation Army—The Knights of Columbus.

EVEN as time moves in cycles so the training of soldiers has changed from period to period as students of the great military establishments of the world have delved into the problems of attack and defense. Since the time that "Johnny came marching home" from the Civil War there has been a right about face in the methods adopted for turning out the best soldiers, particularly in America, where there has been no great military machine to develop a big fighting organization. The task of making an army in America was found when the country was called to war, a much greater problem than that which would have confronted had there been universal military training. Fortunately, many associations and organizations who helped the Government to take care of her soldiers also helped to make the best soldiers in the least possible time.

There was a time when the soldier was taught to walk with his toes turned out, and when he was instructed to carry his gun on his shoulder and to lay his head on the barrel of the gun with the trigger guard under his jaw—all of which was uncomfortable. But all this is changed. Training directors found that greater comfort in all things tended to a quicker development of the individual and of the armed force.

In the creation of the force of 2,000,000 men sent to bring the arrogant Hun to his knees, the United States found opportunity to apply all of the modern theories of soldier-making with a success that startled the world. Camps which in the old days were canvas-tented places became cities with frame buildings, electric lights, well-defined streets, adequate water systems and great supply stations carrying as complete lines of luxuries as the great department stores, as well as every necessity for the comfort of the men.

In the old days soldier-making was almost entirely a professional military job, but America clearly demonstrated that the people will hereafter have much to say as to how the men sent to fight must be treated, and how they are to be trained, for in the work of making its oversea force the United States invited its great welfare organization to render auxiliary service, establish canteens and help in turning out the best equipped soldier the world has ever known.

Medical and Surgical Care of the Soldier.

One of the prime necessities which was met by the country with a great degree of efficiency was the protection of the health of the men called to arms. Equipped with the most modern medical and surgical appliances and with the best physicians in America in charge of thoroughly trained attendants, the army hospitals maintained the health of the American soldier on the very highest plane. Special medical care, including what has become known as occupational treatment, was given every man off and on the field of battle. Skilled surgeons cared for the war victims under the very cannon of the enemy, and where a leg or an arm was lost an artificial one was provided through the Bureau of War Risk insurance. Men were practically made over. Faces mutilated were rebuilt by master surgeons and, while the skill of these wonder-workers did not make possible the restoring of eyesight lost in the fume of battle, the next best thing was done in teaching the sightless to work with the hands and to become in a degree self supporting, rather than to become sheer charges upon society.

The protection of the soldier, not only while in training but after he became part of the Government fighting machine, reached out into civilian life as never before. Inspection of the country surrounding every camp or station was made by Government and private agencies. Social conditions were inquired into; the very wells from which water was drawn or might be drawn were tested; restrictions were placed upon the sale of liquor; war was waged against brothels and houses of ill repute. "Camp followers" were kept at bay, and where civilian authorities in cities adjacent to military or naval stations failed to curb evil influences the Government took hold and placed the military police in command.

The efforts in this direction included for the first time in the

training of soldiers lectures on morality and health measures. The men were taught that things which sapped their vitality made them not merely poor fighters, but made them easy victims of disease, and that in not taking care of themselves as individuals they endangered the health of their comrades and lowered the efficiency of the army as a whole.

The result of educating the soldier in this direction was to return from the field a force of men in almost perfect health, and to practically eliminate the contagious diseases which in days gone by swept through military camps killing more men than did the enemy bullets.

Nor was the education entirely along this line. The more intelligent, the better educated the soldier, the better fighter he will be, and the more valuable he will prove as a wheel in the great military machine. In building up the army, then, the United States devoted much attention to instructing the recruits.

The Young Men's Christian Association in the War.

To many soldiers in the camps, far away from friends and relatives, "going to school" was looked upon as a diversion. The moving picture machine was one of the most efficient instruments used in the educational work. Illustrated lessons were provided through the use of the machines. In other cases maps and photographs were used as the texts for lessons. Special instructors were provided by the Government for this service in practically every camp in the country, but a large part of the work was performed by the auxiliary organizations.

One of the trying times of a soldier's life is when he leaves home and embarks for a training camp to be put through his paces to become part of the country's great war machine. It is at this period that he needs a friend. In the crucial situation the Young Men's Christian Association came to the front during the war, and placed representatives on every train carrying recruits to camp.

As the long trains wound their way through valleys and over fields, the trained Y. M. C. A. workers talked with the new "soldiers." Adapting themselves to the same living conditions as were enjoyed by the recruits the workers won their way into the hearts of the embryo fighters.

When the troop trains arrived at their destinations the traveling

Y. M. C. A. representatives turned the men over to local representatives. In the camps the men were tested for twenty-one days in order that the Government might learn whether they had any chronic disability, and as part of the preparatory work. They were vaccinated, and while this was a military treatment, the work was done under the supervision of the Y. M. C. A.

Not a soldier who entered the army need return ignorant. Classes were conducted for foreigners and for illiterates. In the first draft there were called to the colors 70,000 negroes. Statistics compiled by the Y. M. C. A. showed that 50 per cent. of those men were unable to read or write. Every one received some degree of instruction and many availed themselves of the opportunity to receive the full benefit of the simple lessons.

When the men left the training camps in the United States and traveled to the ports of embarkation the Y. M. C. A. worker went along. On each troop train was a secretary of the Association, who used all of his power and his experience in keeping the men in good spirits. The journeys across country became sight-seeing trips in many cases, for the secretaries gave talks on the country as the trains sped along. At the points of embarkation the Y. M. C. A. stations became amusement places rather than schools of instruction. The purpose was to keep the men in good humor while awaiting orders to sail.

Literature and Amusements Provided.

At the camps, and also at embarkation points, there was provided a complete Library Service. This was operated by the Y. M. C. A. under a co-operative plan with the American Library Association. Regularly authorized librarians had charge of the work—most of them young women wearing picturesque uniforms—and books of all sorts were provided. It is a matter of great credit to the young men who made up the army that a very large proportion of the books demanded were on technical, military and solid subjects rather than works of fiction and light reading. The American soldier had been inducted into a service he had no liking for, but the burden of making good was upon him, and the kind of reading matter he selected showed clearly that he had determined to make the very best fighting man he could and proposed to get all the available information which would help him in being a soldier.

Before embarking there were many classes in French, and at one period at Camp Merritt there were 37 classes for the study of this tongue going simultaneously, while 140 lectures were delivered by the Y. M. C. A. representatives in a period of a single month. Nor was the work stopped when the men reached the other side. They were taken in charge by representatives of the Association when they reached France and the plan of education and entertainment was continued. Famous actors, actresses, physical instructors and entertainers of all kinds were carried across the water to appear before the newly landed men, as well as before the convalescents and war-weary.

It was under the direction of the Y. M. C. A. that many of the American soldiers visited famed old-world cities and learned much of the history of the country in which they were fighting. And then when the great time came and the American boys went into the trenches to be bombarded with Boche shells and charged across No Man's Land the Y. M. C. A. workers followed close behind. Their huts and canteens were put up at camps and headquarters; at cross-roads and junctions—everywhere where the battle raged.

The Salvation Army Doughnut.

A motor service was developed which was used to transport supplies as well as serve in emergency to carry wounded to the hospital. Tobacco, candy, cigarettes, stationery, chewing gum and other things wanted by the brave boys were provided, either gratuitously or for a nominal price, and working under fire many of the personal toilers of the Association proved themselves as heroic as the men in the actual fighting forces.

The huts of the Y. M. C. A., referred to in the preceding pages, were a feature of war service new to the world in the great war. They were not by any means exclusively instruments of the Association. With France and Belgium disrupted and torn when the United States entered the war, the problem of housing the representatives, the associations and organizations near camps and along the battle-line became a serious one. Both the huts and the canteen service were born of necessity.

Light on how necessity developed a hut is revealed by the little story of the Salvation Army doughnut. Part of the first delegation of the Salvationists to go abroad from America was composed of

women. They established their headquarters at Ligna and Barrios, below Toul. This was the centre of an operation at the time, and the women were taken to the front to do home cooking for the soldiers. Using the cover of a shaving stick for a punch they cut delicious doughnuts. When it was announced, after the doughnuts had been ravenously devoured, that the women would return to their sleeping quarters, the men rose up in protest, and finally the women decided that they would stay, and rough it just as the men were doing. They were provided with a hut at once, and this hut became the centre for real home doughnuts, one young woman making in one day as many as 1,500 of the luscious reminders of home.

In the canteens supplies were carried which supplemented the regular allowance of the military authorities so completely that the ordinary private could live in comparative luxury, if he was prepared to meet the actual cost of the stock carried on hand. The commander of each troop train had a booklet in which were the names of the stations at which canteens were situated, and this information was available to the men at all times. They could find out at any time the nearest canteen, and avail themselves of that service. Writing paper was furnished the men free at the canteens of the various associations, and they were entertained with moving pictures, dances and singing.

Diversified Training of the Salvationists.

No sooner had the United States declared war than the heads of the Salvation Army in the United States were busy arranging for the transportation of representatives to Europe. In one instance an officer of this army of workers received a telegram asking him how soon he could report in New York for embarkation overseas. The telegram came as a bolt from the blue skies, as he had no idea of leaving his home, but within four days he was on his way to Europe.

All Salvation Army men going into war work were given first aid instruction, so that they could assist in the training of men in camps, and, most important of all, so that they could assist on the battlefield in aiding the medical authorities in caring for the wounded. They were given an all-around training, so that they could jump right into the breach, and do any needed thing with passable skill.

Ambulances and trucks were also placed in the field by the organization and, in many instances, the trucks did double service, carry-

ing supplies to the front for the soldiers, and bringing wounded men back to the bases on the return trip. Officers of the Salvation Army, acting as chauffeurs, were on duty for days at a stretch, without relief and the very limits of human endurance were tested by those in the service.

Enduring the same hardships as the men of the United States Army, the men and women of the American Salvation Army went forward with that army of fighters, and proved their mettle in a way to win the honor and respect of the fighters. At the most dangerous points on the firing line there were the "lads and lassies" of the army of love standing shoulder to shoulder with the fighting men. and handing out hot coffee and chocolate at all hours of the night, to say nothing of doughnuts. The Salvation Army also served as a medium for remitting money to the home folks from the soldier.

Loyalty of the Salvation Army Women.

The work of the Army was the work of true democracy, as no distinction was made between soldiers and officers. The resources of the Salvationists were at the service of all the United States forces. Shelled by day and night, living in water-filled dugouts in the American first lines, women proved their loyalty to the cause of liberty, and won praise and love for the Salvation Army. Often covered from head to foot with mud, which clung to their rubber boots, the women worked their way from point to point along the front lines and carried comforts to the soldier boys. They had fires in the dugouts, so that when the soldiers got back from the front they found some warmth, and always were on hand when needed to pass out food, to take care of the wounded, and even to assist with the last rites for the dead. One army officer says:

"As a body it is taking chances which the members of no other organization are taking. One building it occupied had its roof blown off by a German shell. The Salvation Army folks draped tent canvas over the walls and continued their work. While they were sleeping in the cellar several more shells struck the building, and smashed all their equipment beyond repair. This was not 200 yards from our front trenches, and the Salvationists continued their work, through shot and shell.

"One night I was sitting in the door of the Salvation Army hut

when a shell hit a house next door, and killed three of our boys, as they slept. The Salvation Army women continued dishing out hot cocoa and coffee, as if nothing had happened. They are game, those women, God bless them. They are regular women, of the same breed as the mother of Abraham Lincoln and the wives of our western pioneers."

None of the civilian organizations at the front more completely won the heart of the soldiers than the Salvation Army. To say this is not to disparage in any way its friendly rivals in good works. It took upon itself functions which brought it into close relations with the men who were actually in the fighting line. Its services were offered at a time when any service was peculiarly grateful. Every soldier who came back had the same story to tell—a story of willing help in the face of danger, of cheerful courage, of unwearying self-sacrifice.

Among the big organizations which rendered invaluable service to the army at large and to the men as individuals must be mentioned the Knights of Columbus. Although a Catholic organization, its representatives in America at the various camps and cantonments and at military and naval stations rendered service to humanity wherever it was found suffering.

As in the case of the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus provided huts and canteens, and established quarters in Paris, London and other centres where young men might congregate and find helpful service and entertainment. The doors of Catholic homes were opened to Catholic men of the service, and the arm of the church reached out to protect them. The work of the organization adhered to the lines followed by other welfare bodies in helping to solve the problems of caring for the soldiers, and there were representatives of the organization at every camp, and every hospital at home and abroad. The work was done with full authority of the Government the Knights co-operating with the army officials and executives in all branches of the service.

CHAPTER LVI.

AMERICAN HEROISM FROM CANTIGNY TO SEDAN.

The Capture of Cantigny—Chateau Thierry—An American Wall of Strength—Turning the Tides of War—The Heights of Ourcq—St. Mihiel—Sacrifice and Heroism—Swimming the Meuse Under Fire—Sedan and the Last Shots—Negro Troops Cited—Foch's Tribute to Americans—President Wilson's Christmas With His Soldiers in France.

CANTIGNY—Bouresches—Belleau Wood—Chateau Thierry—Ourcq—Fismes—St. Mihiel—Sedan—Stenay. These names will forever be linked in history with the exploits of the American Army in the war for Liberty. There are other names that will be remembered, but these are as milestones which marked the development and progress of the American Army on the road to victory and to glory.

There was that brave participation of Engineers at Cambrai, already referred to, in which the men working on the railroad lines threw down their tools and joined the British in repulsing the Germans. There was that later display of heroism on the part of another company of Engineers caught in the German drive of March 21 in Picardy, when they joined forces hastily gathered under Major Sanderson Carey of the British Army and fought for thirteen days to hold a gap in the British line. While under fire the Engineers destroyed material dumps at Cahulnes, fell back with the British to Moreuil and then took a sector of the defensive line, fighting the Germans to a "stand-still."

Again, at Seicheprey, in the Toul sector, where the Americans held a one-mile front, the Germans launched an attack after a severe bombardment and succeeded in taking the village, but the next morning the Americans drove the enemy out of the positions which they had gained and prevented the Germans from separating them from the French with which they were operating. In this action the Americans suffered their first severe losses, 600 having been reported killed, missing or wounded.

These were but skirmishes in which the Americans operating with the French received their baptism of fire, but at Cantigny, the First Division made the first real attack of the war, capturing the village and making an advance of a mile on a two-mile front.

Advancing up a wooded slope behind French tanks and protected by a heavy barrage from French and American guns the detachment stormed the German position. The sun was just rising over the hills on May 28, when the Americans moved forward and drove the Germans from their positions. The attack had been carefully planned and rehearsed, and one of the outstanding incidents was the proven loyalty of two American dough-boys who fell into the hands of the enemy the night before the raid. They knew of the impending attack, but would they reveal the plans to the enemy under examination? The answer came when the advance was made. The Germans were taken by surprise. No information had been gained by them from their prisoners.

American Heroism Around Chateau Thierry.

The day came quickly when the Prussians in their drive toward Paris must be stopped, and the call from the Marne reached the Americans. Here with a singleness of purpose General Pershing had turned over to the Allies all the forces at his command to stem the forward tide of Germans which had crossed the Vesle, approached the Marne and was pressing forward toward Paris. Then it was that the most experienced forces of America were rushed forward to make history at Chateau Thierry, Bouresches and Belleau Wood. Elsewhere a brief picture of this scene is given in recounting the activities of the Marines, but a thousand tongues could tell as many stories of American heroism around Chateau Thierry.

The town lies on both sides of the Marne which was spanned by a big bridge. Beside the river runs a canal, across which was a smaller bridge. The Germans had reached the town and were pushing forward to take up position on the south bank of the river across the main bridge when the Americans reached the scene after hours of hurried riding.

Under cover of darkness the American machine gunners marched into Chateau Thierry. German shells were raking the city, but the Americans placed their guns on the south bank of the river. Houses fell like packs of cards under the German shells, but the Americans faced the situation like veterans. One detachment crossed the river to protect an approach to the big bridge. At daylight came the Germans. The Americans guarding the approaches to the bridge let loose their rapid fire guns. The enemy crept back, but from their

positions were able to shell the Americans and French. Retiring, the French blew up the main bridge under cover of darkness. The Germans sought to cross the remaining iron bridge, walking into the fire of the American machine guns with terrible losses. For thirteen consecutive hours the Americans held the Germans in check, and then the French engineers, under protection of an American barrage, blew up the remaining bridge. The German advance had been stopped. Bouresches and Belleau Wood, in which the Americans routed the Germans with awful sacrifice, followed, but the sacrifice was not without result. American effort and bravery had turned the tide of war.

Marshal Foch with superb strategy began his hammer blows against the German forces and the First American Army as a unit organization covered itself with glory in the second battle of the Marne. Starting on July 18 between Soissons and Chateau Thierry the Americans and French forced the Germans back; north of Chateau Thierry the Americans pressed the enemy; south of Dormans the Americans held the Germans and north of Chalons the Americans resisted the troops of the Crown Prince. Bois de Chatelet and Epieds, Trugny—these fell to the lot of the Americans in brilliant fighting. At the latter place the Americans used Ford motor cars to rout the Germans from their positions. The cars were manned by machine gunners who sent streams of bullets into German gun nests along the road. The story of "Ford's Cavalry" is one that will endure.

The Crossing of the Ourcq.

Again on the river Ourcq the Americans drove the Germans before them, forcing the stream in a brilliant charge. Facing a veritable hell of fire the Americans broke through the German defense with such force as to make a salient jutting into the enemy line beyond the position scheduled to be captured. Twice the Americans jumped into the river and attempted to cross in the face of machine gun fire, suffering terrible loss. Then the engineers under fire built two bridges and American companies went over subject to terrific assault. In the night thousands of others followed and the taking of Sergy and Seringes went into history. But Sergy changed hands nine times in twenty-four hours; Seringes five times before it became the war property of the Americans.

Events moved quickly. General Pershing planned the first all-

American offensive, which is described in its military significance in his official report which is contained in a subsequent chapter, as already indicated. This, too, gives the corps and divisions participating.

The offensive began with the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient, which had resisted the efforts of the Allies for four years. Intensive preparations were made for the drive, in which French and American tanks, aeroplanes and artillery were used. The drive was made on September 12, and while there have been more bitter battles none was of greater importance because in taking the territory the Americans liberated two important railroads and a canal which had been held under fire of the Germans. Approximately 600,000 soldiers participated, and in the advance took 152 square miles of territory and seventy-two villages. Forty-eight hundred trucks were used and five thousand miles of telephone wires laid in connection with the movement which netted the Americans more than fifteen thousand prisoners and huge quantities of munitions and supplies.

The Story of the Lost Battalion.

Then followed the terrible drive through the Argonne Forest. The situation was a repetition of the German machine gun nests in Bouresches and Belleau Wood, and in the bitter fighting, there must be told the story of the "Lost Battalion" of the Seventy-seventh Division (New York), which will forever stand out as one of the most dramatic incidents of the war.

On the night of September 27, while participating in an attack on German positions, a battalion had pushed its way deep into the forest only to find that not only were Germans in front, but behind them. The enemy troops had filtered in behind them a thousand strong and cut off retreat. The imprisoned force numbered 463 men. Efforts to reach them on the part of the French and the American forces failed and for four days they remained penned in without food, without ammunition and suffering complete exhaustion.

Suddenly a captured American came into the camp of the beleaguered battalion and presented a note from the German headquarters to Major Whittlesey. It read, "Americans you are surrounded on all sides. Surrender in the name of humanity. You will be well treated."

Major Whittlesey did not hesitate. He was not there to surrender. His reply was "Go to Hell." Then he read the note to those around him, who despite their hunger and exhaustion cheered so loudly that the Germans heard them from their observation posts. During their imprisonment the surrounding territory was continually drilled by the machine guns of the Germans and no man in the battalion could show himself without drawing a rain of fire. Finally when a runner, making his way through the forest, dropping into holes, dodging behind trees and engaging in skirmishes with German scouts, reached the American headquarters the battalion was rescued in a terrible state of exhaustion.

From the time that the Americans launched their attack leading into Argonne Forest they faced some of the bitterest fighting of the entire war. Within a period of less than a month they fought and put out of the struggle upward of twenty divisions of the best troops of Germany. Desperate, close-in fighting marked every position taken by the Americans, whose progress was stubbornly made.

Sedan in the Hands of Americans.

Mile by mile they advanced through September and October until their objective—the Longuyon-Sedan-Mezieres railway, which they were ordered to cut—was within shelling distance, when the big Naval guns brought in for Army use for the first time in the war bombarded this German communication artery. A hundred thousand Germans were thrown into the battle to protect this line from the Americans, but without avail. The big guns wrought havoc and the tireless Americans drove forward like machines, taking towns and villages.

Finally came the Meuse and Sedan. In crossing the river at several points the Americans gave exhibitions of heroism not exceeded in history. At one point under the most intense machine gun fire the men swam the river, waded through mud flats, plunged through a canal and then scaled the concrete canal wall banks. Those leading carried ropes, along which men who could not swim made their way. Pontoon bridges were thrown over the stream. One was destroyed, but another replaced it and the troops succeeded in establishing positions on the opposite bank. Back again went the Boche, and Sedan, the famous city where the war issues of 1870-71 were decided against

the great Napoleon, fell into the hands of the Americans on November 6.

It was at Sedan that the army of MacMahon, in the Franco-Prussian War, was encircled by the Germans, and Napoleon, finding further resistence useless, surrendered to William the First, King of Prussia, while 85,000 men and 2,900 officers laid down their arms. The French Empire fell and the present Republic was established.

Thus, too, the Germans in the year 1918, signed the armistice which brought peace when Sedan became a point of defeat in a great collapsing front. At the conclusion the Americans faced the Germans from the region of the Moselle to Sedan, and at precisely eleven o'clock on the morning of November 11, when the armistice became effective. fired a volley over the German lines.

The Part Taken by Negro Troops.

Silence reigned when the roar of the cannons died away, and then the Americans sprang upward and cheered loud and long. Peace had come. With it came honors to thousands of Americans and to the country they represented. The names Rainbow Division, The Iron Division—National Guardsmen, Regulars, Marines, National Army men —Americans all, served with a united and individual dash and bravery unexcelled in the history of warfare.

Nor should the part played by the Negro troops—American all—be forgotten. It was largely through the work of the Negro labor battalions that the herculean tasks of building the great docks and piers in France were accomplished, and on the battle front no braver soldiers ever existed. There was, for instance, the 365th New York Regiment, composed wholly of Negroes, which received a citation for heroic work in the Champagne sector in September and October. Besides this a number were decorated for personal bravery, and in every camp and on every front commanders joined in paying tribute to their loyalty, their bravery and the spirit with which they battled for liberty and America.

A dozen times Marshal Foch, Generalissimo of the Allied Forces; Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig, of the British; Marshal Joffre, of the French; General Pershing, Commander in Chief of the American Army, and military leaders in every branch of the Allied service have paid glowing tribute to the work of the Americans, both on land and

sea. In one great summing up of their value Marshal Foch in an interview given to a representative of the Associated Press in Treves, France, said:

"This is for me a happy opportunity to tell you all the good things I think of the American Army and the part it played on our side. Your soldiers were superb. They came to us young, enthusiastic, and carried forward by a vigorous idealism, and they marched to battle with admirable gallantry.

"Yes, they were superb. There is no other word. When they appeared, our armies were fatigued by three years of relentless struggle and the mantle of war laid heavily upon them. We were magnificently comforted by the virility of your Americans.

"The youth of the United States brought a renewal of hope that hastened victory. Not only was this moral fact of the highest importance, but you also brought enormous material aid and the wealth which you placed at our disposal contributed to our final success. Nobody among us will ever forget what America did.

"And you know what happened on the field of battle since the month of June—first on the Marne, and then in the region of Verdun. General Pershing wished as far as possible to have his army concentrated in an American sector. The Argonne and the heights of the Meuse were a sector hard to tackle. There were considerable obstacles there.

" 'All right,' I said to him, 'Your men have the devil's own punch. They will get away with all that. Go to it.' And finally everything went well—so well that here we are on the Rhine."

President Wilson and Christmas Day Festivities.

Significant of the part played by America in the war and of the spread of Democracy over the world was the participation of President Wilson in the Christmas Day festivities of the American Army at the quaint old town of Chaumont, France. The President, who was the first Chief Executive of the United States to go abroad, went up to the Army headquarters from Paris where he was awaiting the assembling of the Peace Conference.

The oldest inhabitant of the town was out with his age old silk hat, the prettiest little girl was out in her best gown. The streets were lined with American and French troops and the sidewalks were choked with Frenchmen cheering themselves hoarse.

The moss-grown roofs of the houses were loaded with folks from the countryside who cared nothing for the raw, chill wind that swept over the land or for the occasional rain or the touch of snow.

Cold, gray cloud banks shut out the sun and the ground was wet and sodden. But there was no dampness in the welcome. Chaumont simply went wild. The American troops, muddy, cold and soaked, but happy, seemed just as enthusiastic as the country people.

The President's train arrived at nine o'clock in the morning and the party went at once to the City Hall, where there was a formal reception, speeches and the presentation of flowers. Less than a tenth of those invited could crowd into the small room, which already had in place a tablet commemorating the President's visit.

The preliminary ceremony was soon over and the President and his party took motor cars to Langres, where selected troops from six divisions were waiting to be reviewed. They were gathered in a field which might be likened geographically to the battlefield of Gettysburg. It lies on a gentle slope between two elevations, with a range of hills on either side and a road running along the top of one of them.

A temporary boardwalk had been built over the quagmire of the reviewing field. General Pershing opened the ceremony with a brief speech, in which he presented "the victorious army" to the President.

The Troops Addressed and Reviewed by President Wilson.

The President addressed the troops as "my fellow countrymen," and spoke for about five minutes, earnestly and as loudly as he could. Probably half the troops heard him. They all seemed to recognize the historic significance of the occasion.

There stood before them an American President, the first in history to review an American army on foreign soil. There stood a President for whom no like privilege had been available since Lincoln stood on the firing line with his troops north of Washington.

Langres was not a battlefield; it was not a devastated section of France. As a matter of fact it had not seen a battle for more than a hundred years. It was one of the portions of this country saved from the ravages of the invading hordes by the men who were reviewed.

The moment the President finished speaking the review was on—men, guns, horses and dogs. The headquarters band began with a

French air, then switched to "The Stars and Stripes Forever," "The Suwanee River," "Maryland" and "Dixie."

The notes of the American airs were lifted over the bleak fields to the blue hills in the backgrounds as the men began to move, marching in company front formation, wheeling past the reviewing stand, eyes right.

First came the men of the 6th Division, veterans of the Meuse and Argonne offensives; then infantry and machine guns of the 26th, veterans of the Chemin Des Dames, Chateau Thierry and the Argonne. The men of the 29th, also in the Argonne offensive, were next, and a composite battalion of the 77th. Detachments of the 80th who were in the fighting at Verdun last October and detachments of the 82d followed.

The review was brought to an end by a long train of ammunition wagons, dragged through the mire by the inevitable army mule, and a company of whippet tanks.

At the close of the review the President and party re-entered the motor cars, going to Christmas dinner with the officers of the 26th Division, composed entirely of New England troops. Dinner was served in one of the empty wards of an old French hospital several miles away.

The President seemed to enjoy the dinner. It consisted of army bread without butter, roast turkey with dressing, boiled onions, French lettuce and coffee without cream. All was served in the simplest style and with littlest ceremony.

The headquarters band gave the President four rifles and four flourishes when he came, and when he went away he simply waved his hand to all, and with a smile said: "Well, good-by. Hope to see you again soon."

CHAPTER LVII.

PERSHING'S OWN STORY.

Summary of Operations of the American Expeditionary Force as Cabled to Secretary of War Baker, by General John J. Pershing on November 20, 1918.

THE following simple, but comprehensive, review of the activities of the American Army by General Pershing was made public on December 5 as an appendix to the annual report of the Secretary of War:

During our period of training in the trenches some of our divisions had engaged the enemy in local combats, the most important of which was Seicheprey by the Twenty-sixth on April 20, in the Toul sector, but none had participated in action as a unit.

The First Division, which had passed through the preliminary stages of training, had gone to the trenches for its first period of instruction at the end of October, and by March 21, when the German offensive in Picardy began, we had four divisions with experience in the trenches, all of which were equal to any demands of battle action. The crisis which this offensive developed was such that our occupation of an American sector must be postponed.

On March 28 I placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch, who had been agreed upon as Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Armies, all of our forces to be used as he might decide. At his request the First Division was transferred from the Toul sector to a position in reserve at Chaumont en Vexin. As German superiority in numbers required prompt action, an agreement was reached at the Abbeville conference of the allied Premiers and commanders and myself on May 2 by which British shipping was to transport ten American divisions to the British Army area, where they were to be trained and equipped, and additional British shipping was to be provided for as many divisions as possible for use elsewhere.

On April 26 the First Division had gone into the line in the Montdidier salient on the Picardy battle-front. Tactics had been suddenly revolutionized to those of open warfare, and our men, confident of the

results of their training, were eager for the test. On the morning of May 28 this division attacked the commanding German position in its front, taking with splendid dash the town of Cantigny and all other objectives, which were organized and held steadfastly against vicious counter attacks and galling artillery fire. Although local, this brilliant action had an electrical effect, as it demonstrated our fighting qualities under extreme battle conditions, and also that the enemy's troops were not altogether invincible.

The German Aisne offensive, which began on May 27, had advanced rapidly toward the River Marne and Paris, and the Allies faced a crisis equally as grave as that of the Picardy offensive in March. Again every available man was placed at Marshal Foch's disposal, and the Third Division, which had just come from its preliminary training in the trenches, was hurried to the Marne. Its motorized machine-gun battalion preceded the other units and successfully held the bridgehead at the Marne, opposite Chateau Thierry. The Second Division, in reserve near Montdidier, was sent by motor trucks and other available transport to check the progress of the enemy toward Paris. The division attacked and retook the town and railroad station at Bouresches and sturdily held its ground against the enemy's best guard divisions. In the battle of Belleau Wood, which followed, our men proved their superiority and gained a strong tactical position, with far greater loss to the enemy than to ourselves. On July 1, before the Second was relieved, it captured the village of Vaux with most splendid precision.

American Divisions in the Fighting.

Meanwhile our Second Corps, under Major-General George W. Read, had been organized for the command of our divisions with the British, which were held back in training areas or assigned to second-line defenses. Five of the ten divisions were withdrawn from the British area in June, three to relieve divisions in Lorraine and in the Vosges and two of the Paris area to join the group of American divisions which stood between the city and any further advance of the enemy in that direction.

The great June-July troop movement from the States was well under way, and, although these troops were to be given some preliminary training before being put into action, their very presence war-

ranted the use of all the older divisions in the confidence that we did not lack reserves. Elements of the Forty-second Division were in the line east of Rheims against the German offensive of July 15, and held their ground unflinchingly. On the right flank of this offensive four companies of the Twenty-eighth Division were in position in face of the advancing waves of the German infantry. The Third Division was holding the bank of the Marne from the bend east of the mouth of the Surmélin to the west of Mézy, opposite Chateau Thierry, where a large force of German infantry sought to force a passage under support of powerful artillery concentrations and under cover of smoke screens. A single regiment of the Third wrote one of the most brilliant pages in our military annals on this occasion. It prevented the crossing at certain points on its front while, on either flank, the Germans, who had gained a footing, pressed forward. Our men, firing in three directions, met the German attacks with counter-attacks at critical points and succeeded in throwing two German divisions into complete confusion, capturing 600 prisoners.

Strong Counter-Offensives by the First and Second Divisions.

The great force of the German Chateau Thierry offensive established the deep Marne salient, but the enemy was taking chances, and the vulnerability of this pocket to attack might be turned to his disadvantage. Seizing this opportunity to support my conviction, every division with any sort of training was made available for use in a counter-offensive. The place of honor in the thrust toward Soissons on July 18 was given to our First and Second Divisions in company with chosen French divisions. Without the usual brief warning of a preliminary bombardment, the massed French and American artillery, firing by the map, laid down its rolling barrage at dawn while the infantry began its charge. The tactical handling of our troops under these trying conditions was excellent throughout the action. The enemy brought up large numbers of reserves and made a stubborn defense, both with machine guns and artillery, but through five days' fighting the First Division continued to advance until it had gained the heights above Soissons and captured the village of Berzy-le-Sec. The Second Division took Beau Repaire farm and Vierzy in front of Tigny at the end of its second day. These two divisions captured 7,000 prisoners and over 100 pieces of artillery.

The Twenty-sixth Division, which, with a French division, was under command of our First Corps, acted as a pivot of the movement toward Soissons. On the 18th it took the village of Torcy while the Third Division was crossing the Marne in pursuit of the retiring enemy. The Twenty-sixth attackèd again on the 21st, and the enemy withdrew past the Chateau Thierry-Soissons road. The Third Division, continuing its progress, took the heights of Mont St. Père and the villages of Chartèves and Jaulgonne in the face of both machine gun and artillery fire.

On the 24th, after the Germans had fallen back from Trugny and Epieds, our Forty-second Division, which had been brought over from the Champagne, relieved the Twenty-sixth, and fighting its way through the Forêt de Fère, overwhelmed the nest of machine guns in its path. By the 27th it had reached the Ourcq, whence the Third and Fourth Divisions were already advancing, while the French divisions with which we were coöperating were moving forward at other points.

Battle of St. Mihiel.

The Third Division had made its advance into Roncheres Wood on the 29th and was relieved for rest by a brigade of the Thirty-second. The Forty-second and Thirty-second undertook the task of conquering the heights beyond Cierges, the Forty-second capturing Sergy and the Thirty-second capturing Hill 230, both American divisions joining in the pursuit of the enemy to the Vesle, and thus the operation of reducing the salient was finished. Meanwhile the Forty-second was relieved by the Fourth at Chêry-Chartreuve, and the Thirty-second by the Twenty-eighth, while the Seventy-seventh Division took up a position on the Vesle. The operations of these divisions on the Vesle were under the Third Corps, Major-General Robert L. Bullard commanding.

With the reduction of the Marne salient, we could look forward to the concentration of our divisions in our own zone. In view of the forthcoming operation against the St. Mihiel salient, which had long been planned as our first offensive action on a large scale, the First Army was organized on August 10 under my personal command. While American units had held different divisional and corps sectors along the western front, there had not been up to this time, for obvious reasons, a distinct American sector; but, in view of the im-

portant parts the American forces were now to play, it was necessary to take over a permanent portion of the line. Accordingly, on August 30, the line beginning at Port sur Seille, east of the Moselle and extending to the west through St. Mihiel, thence north to a point opposite Verdun, was placed under my command. The American sector was afterward extended across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne Forest, and included the Second Colonial French, which held the point of the salient, and the Seventeenth French Corps, which occupied the heights above Verdun.

The preparation for a complicated operation against the formidable defenses in front of us included the assembling of divisions and of corps and army artillery, transport, aircraft, tanks, ambulances, the location of hospitals, and the molding together of all of the elements of a great modern army with its own railroads, supplied directly by our own Service of Supply. The concentration for this operation, which was to be a surprise, involved the movement, mostly at night, of approximately 600,000 troops, and required for its success the most careful attention to every detail.

A Line Forty Miles Long.

The French were generous in giving us assistance in corps and army artillery, with its personnel, and we were confident from the start of our superiority over the enemy in guns of all calibers. Our heavy guns were able to reach Metz and to interfere seriously with German rail movements. The French Independent Air Force was placed under my command which, together with the British bombing squadrons and our air forces, gave us the largest assembly of aviation that had ever been engaged in one operation on the western front.

From Les Eparges around the nose of the salient at St. Mihiel to the Moselle River the line was roughly forty miles long and situated on commanding ground greatly strengthened by artificial defenses. Our First Corps (Eighty-second, Ninetieth, Fifth and Second Divisions), under command of Major-General Hunter Liggett, restrung its right on Pont-a-Mousson, with its left joining our Third Corps (the Eighty-ninth, Forty-second and First Divisions), under Major-General Joseph T. Dickman, in line to Xivray, were to swing toward Vigneulles on the pivot of the Moselle River for the initial assault. From Xivray to Mouilly the Second Colonial French Corps was in

line in the center, and our Fifth Corps, under command of Major-General George H. Cameron, with our Twenty-sixth Division and a French division at the western base of the salient, were to attack three different hills—Les Esparges, Combres and Amaramthe. Our First Corps had in reserve the Seventy-eighth Division, our Fourth Corps the Third Division, and our First Army the Thirty-fifth and Ninety-first Divisions, with the Eightieth and Thirty-third available. It should be understood that our corps organizations are very elastic, and that we have at no time had permanent assignments of divisions to corps.

After four hours' artillery preparation, the seven American divisions in the front line advanced at 5 A. M. on September 12, assisted by a limited number of tanks manned partly by Americans and partly by French. These divisions accompanied by groups of wire cutters and others armed with bangalore torpedoes, went through the successive bands of barbed wire that protected the enemy's front line and support trenches, in irresistible waves on schedule time, breaking down all defense of an enemy demoralized by the great volume of our artillery fire and our sudden approach out of the fog.

Signal Success of the American First Army.

Our First Corps advanced to Thiaucourt, while our Fourth Corps curved back to the southwest through Nonsard. The Second Colonial French Corps made the slight advance required of it on very difficult ground, and the Fifth Corps took its three ridges and repulsed a counter-attack. A rapid march brought reserve regiments of a division of the Fifth Corps into Vigneulles in the early morning, where it linked up with patrols of our Fourth Corps, closing the salient and forming a new line west of Thiaucourt to Vigneulles and beyond Fresnes-en-Woevre. At the cost of only 7,000 casualties, mostly light, we had taken 16,000 prisoners and 443 guns, a great quantity of material, released the inhabitants of many villages from enemy domination, and established our lines in a position to threaten Metz. This signal success of the American First Army in its first offensive was of prime importance. The Allies found they had a formidable army to aid them, and the enemy learned finally that he had one to reckon with.

On the day after we had taken the St. Mihiel salient, much of our corps and army artillery which had operated at St. Mihiel, and our divisions in reserve at other points, were already on the move toward

the area back of the line between the Meuse River and the western edge of the forest of Argonne. With the exception of St. Mihiel, the old German front line from Switzerland to the east of Rheims was still intact. In the general attack all along the line, the operation assigned the American Army as the hinge of this allied offensive was directed toward the important railroad communications of the German armies through Mézières and Sedan. The enemy must hold fast to this part of his lines or the withdrawal of his forces with four years' accumulation of plants and material would be dangerously imperiled.

The German Army had as yet shown no demoralization, and, while the mass of its troops had suffered in morale, its first-class divisions, and notably its machine-gun defense, were exhibiting remarkable tactical efficiency as well as courage. The German General Staff was fully aware of the consequences of a success on the Meuse-Argonne line. Certain that he would do everything in his power to oppose us, the action was planned with as much secrecy as possible and was undertaken with the determination to use all our divisions in forcing decision. We expected to draw the best German divisions to our front and to consume them while the enemy was held under grave apprehension lest our attack should break his line, which it was our firm purpose to do.

American Troops Take the Place of the French.

Our right flank was protected by the Meuse, while our left embraced the Argonne Forest, whose ravines, hills, and elaborate defense, screened by dense thickets, had been generally considered impregnable. Our order of battle from right to left was the Third Corps from the Meuse to Malancourt, with the Thirty-third, Eightieth and Fourth Divisions in line, and the Third Division as corps reserve; the Fifth Corps from Malancourt to Vauquois, with Seventy-ninth, Eighty-seventh and Ninety-first Divisions in line, and the Thirty-second in corps reserve, and the First Corps, from Vauquois to Vienne le Chateau, with Thirty-fifth, Twenty-eighth and Seventy-seventh divisions in line, and the Ninety-second in corps reserve. The army reserve consisted of the First, Twenty-ninth and Eighty-second Divisions.

On the night of September 25 our troops quietly took the place of the French, who thinly held the line in this sector, which had long been inactive. In the attack which began on the 26th we drove through

the barbed wire entanglements and the sea of shell craters across No Man's Land, mastering all the first-line defenses. Continuing on the 27th and 28th, against machine guns and artillery of an increasing number of enemy reserve divisions, we penetrated to a depth of from three to seven miles, and took the village of Montfaucon and its commanding hill and Exermont, Gercourt, Cuisy, Septsarges, Malancourt, Ivoiry, Epinonville, Charpentry, Very and other villages. East of the Meuse one of our divisions, which was with the Second Colonial French Corps, captured Marcheville and Rieville, giving further protection to the flank of our main body. We had taken 10,000 prisoners, we had gained our point of forcing the battle into the open, and were prepared for the enemy's reaction, which was bound to come, as he had good roads and ample railroad facilities for bringing up his artillery and reserves.

In the chill rain of dark nights our engineers had to build new roads across spongy shell-torn areas, repair broken roads beyond No Man's Land, and build bridges. Our gunners, with no thought of sleep, put their shoulders to wheels and drag-ropes to bring their guns through the mire in support of the infantry, now under the increasing fire of the enemy's artillery. Our attack had taken the enemy by surprise, but, quickly recovering himself, he began to fire counter-attacks in strong force, supported by heavy bombardments, with large quantities of gas. From September 28 until October 4 we maintained the offensive against patches of woods defended by snipers and continuous lines of machine guns, and pushed forward our guns and transport, seizing strategical points in preparation for further attack.

Other Units With Allies.

Other divisions attached to the allied armies were doing their part. It was the fortune of our Second Corps, composed of the Twenty-seventh and Thirtieth Divisions, which had remained with the British, to have a place of honor in coöperation with the Australian Corps on September 29 and October 1 in the assault on the Hindenburg Line where the St. Quentin Canal passes through a tunnel under a ridge. The Thirtieth Division speedily broke through the main line of defense for all its objectives, while the Twenty-seventh pushed on impetuously through the main line until some of its elements reached Gouy. In the midst of the maze of trenches and shell craters and under

crossfire from machine guns the other elements fought desperately against odds. In this and in later actions, from October 6 to October 19, our Second Corps captured over 6,000 prisoners and advanced over thirteen miles. The spirit and aggressiveness of these divisions have been highly praised by the British Army commander under whom they served.

On October 2-9 our Second and Thirty-sixth Divisions were sent to assist the French in an important attack against the old German positions before Rheims. The Second conquered the complicated defense works on their front against a persistent defense worthy of the grimmest period of trench warfare and attacked the strongly held wooded hill of Blanc Mont, which they captured in a second assault, sweeping over it with consummate dash and skill. This division then repulsed strong counter-attacks before the village and cemetery of Ste. Etienne and took the town, forcing the Germans to fall back from before Rheims and yield positions they had held since September, 1914. On October 9 the Thirty-sixth Division relieved the Second, and in its first experience under fire withstood very severe artillery bombardment and rapidly took up the pursuit of the enemy, now retiring behind the Aisne.

Meuse-Argonne Offensive, Second Phase.

The allied progress elsewhere cheered the efforts of our men in this crucial contest, as the German command threw in more and more first-class troops to stop our advance. We made steady headway in the almost impenetrable and strongly held Argonne Forest, for, despite this reënforcement, it was our army that was doing the driving. Our aircraft was increasing in skill and numbers and forcing the issue, and our infantry and artillery were improving rapidly with each new experience. The replacements fresh from home were put into exhausted divisions with little time for training, but they had the advantage of serving beside men who knew their business and who had almost become veterans overnight. The enemy had taken every advantage of the terrain, which especially favored the defense by a prodigal use of machine guns manned by highly trained veterans and by using his artillery at short ranges. In the face of such strong frontal positions we should have been unable to accomplish any progress according to previously accepted standards, but I had every confidence in our aggressive tactics and the courage of our troops.

On October 4 the attack was renewed all along our front. The Third Corps, tilting to the left, followed the Brieulles-Cunel Road; our Fifth Corps took Gesnes, while the First Corps advanced for over two miles along the irregular valley of the Aire River and in the wooded hills of the Argonne that bordered the river, used by the enemy with all his art and weapons of defense. This sort of fighting continued against an enemy striving to hold every foot of ground and whose very strong counter-attacks challenged us at every point. On the 7th the First Corps captured Chatel-Chénéry and continued along the river to Cornay. On the east of Meuse sector one of the two divisions, coöperating with the French, captured Consenvoye and the Haumont Woods. On the 9th the Fifth Corps, in its progress up the Aire, took Fléville, and the Third Corps, which had continuous fighting against odds, was working its way through Brieulles and Cunel. On the 10th we had cleared the Argonne Forest of the enemy.

A Second American Army Constituted.

It was now necessary to constitute a second army, and on October 9 the immediate command of the First Army was turned over to Lieutenant-General Hunter Liggett. The command of the Second Army, whose divisions occupied a sector in the Woevre, was given to Lieutenant-General Robert L. Bullard, who had been commander of the First Division and then of the Third Corps. Major-General Dickman was transferred to the command of the First Corps, while the Fifth Corps was placed under Major-General Charles P. Summerall, who had recently commanded the First Division. Major-General John L. Hines, who had gone rapidly up from regimental to division commander, was assigned to the Third Corps. These four officers had been in France from the early days of the expedition and had learned their lessons in the school of practical warfare.

Our constant pressure against the enemy brought day by day more prisoners, mostly survivors from machine-gun nests captured in fighting at close quarters. On October 18 there was very fierce fighting in the Caures Woods east of the Meuse and in the Ormont Woods. On the 14th the First Corps took St. Juvin, and the Fifth Corps, in hand-to-hand encounters, entered the formidable Kriemhilde line, where the enemy had hoped to check us indefinitely. Later the Fifth Corps penetrated further the Kriemhilde line, and the First Corps took Cham-

pigneulles and the important town of Grandpre. Our dogged offensive was wearing down the enemy, who continued desperately to throw his best troops against us, thus weakening his line in front of our Allies and making their advance less difficult.

Meanwhile we were not able to continue the battle, but our Thirty-seventh and Ninety-first Divisions were hastily withdrawn from our front and dispatched to help the French Army in Belgium. Detraining in the neighborhood of Ypres, these divisions advanced by rapid stages to the fighting line and were assigned to adjacent French corps. On October 31, in continuation of the Flanders offensive, they attacked and methodically broke down all enemy resistance. On November 3 the Thirty-seventh had completed its mission in dividing the enemy across the Escaut River and firmly established itself along the east bank included in the division zone of action. By a clever flanking movement troops of the Ninety-first Division captured Spitaals Bosschen, a difficult wood extending across the central part of the division sector, reached the Escaut, and penetrated into the town of Audenarde. These divisions received high commendation from their corps commanders for their dash and energy.

Meuse-Argonne—Last Phase.

On the 23d the Third and Fifth Corps pushed northward to the level of Bantheville. While we continued to press forward and throw back the enemy's violent counter-attacks with great loss to him, a regrouping of our forces was under way for the final assault. Evidences of loss of morale by the enemy gave our men more confidence in attack and more fortitude in enduring the fatigue of incessant effort and the hardships of very inclement weather.

With comparatively well-rested divisions, the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front was begun on November 1. Our increased artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance, and the enemy broke before the determined infantry, which, by its persistent fighting of the past weeks and the dash of this attack, had overcome his will to resist. The Third Corps took Ancreville, Doulcon and Andevanne, and the Fifth Corps took Landres et St. Georges and pressed through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville and Chennery. On the 2d the First Corps joined in the movement, which now became an impetuous onslaught that could not be stayed.

On the 3d advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. The First Corps reached Authe and Châtillon-Sur-Bar, the Fifth Corps, Fosse and Nouart, and the Third Corps, Halles, penetrating the enemy's line to a depth of twelve miles. Our large-caliber guns had advanced and were skilfully brought into position to fire upon the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon and Conflans. Our Third Corps crossed the Meuse on the 5th and the other corps, in the full confidence that the day was theirs, eagerly cleared the way of machine guns as they swept northward, maintaining complete coördination throughout. On the 6th, a division of the First Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, twenty-five miles from our line of departure. The strategical goal which was our highest hope was gained. We had cut the enemy's main line of communications, and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save his army from complete disaster.

Operations East of the Meuse.

In all forty enemy divisions had been used against us in the Meuse-Argonne battle. Between September 26 and November 6 we took 26,059 prisoners and 468 guns on this front. Our divisions engaged were the First, Second, Fourth, Fifth, Twenty-sixth, Twenty-eighth, Twenty-ninth, Thirty-second, Thirty-third, Thirty-fifth, Thirty-seventh, Forty-second, Seventy-seventh, Seventy-eighth, Seventy-ninth, Eightieth, Eighty-second, Eighty-ninth, Ninetieth and Ninety-first. Many of our divisions remained in line for a length of time that required nerves of steel, while others were sent in again after only a few days of rest. The First, Fifth, Twenty-sixth, Seventy-seventh, Eightieth, Eighty-ninth and Ninetieth were in the line twice. Although some of the divisions were fighting their first battle, they soon became equal to the best.

On the three days preceding November 10, the Third, the Second Colonial and the Seventeenth French Corps fought a difficult struggle through the Meuse Hills south of Stenay and forced the enemy into the plain. Meanwhile my plans for further use of the American forces contemplated an advance between the Meuse and the Moselle in the direction of Longwy by the First Army, while, at the same time, the Second Army should assure the offensive toward the rich coal fields of Briey. These operations were to be followed by an offensive toward

Chateau-Salins east of the Moselle, thus isolating Metz. Accordingly, attacks on the American front had been ordered, and that of the Second Army was in progress on the morning of November 11, when instructions were received that hostilities should cease at 11 o'clock A. M.

At this moment the line of the American sector, from right to left, began at Port-sur-Seille, thence across the Moselle to Vandieres and through the Woevre to Bezonvaux, in the foothills of the Meuse, thence along the foothills and through the northern edge of the Woevre forests to the Meuse at Mouzay, thence along the Meuse connecting with the French under Sedan.

Relations With the Allies.

Coöperation among the Allies has at all times been the most cordial. A far greater effort had been put forth by the allied armies and staffs to assist us than could have been expected. The French Government and Army have always stood ready to furnish us with supplies, equipment and transportation and to aid us in every way. In the towns and hamlets wherever our troops have been stationed or billeted the French people have everywhere received them more as relatives and intimate friends than as soldiers of a foreign army. For these things words are quite inadequate to express our gratitude. There can be no doubt that the relations growing out of our associations here assure a permanent friendship between the two peoples. Although we have not been so intimately associated with the people of Great Britain, yet their troops and ours when thrown together have always warmly fraternized. The reception of those of our forces who have passed through England and of those who have been stationed there has always been enthusiastic. Altogether it has been deeply impressed upon us that the ties of language and blood bring the British and ourselves together completely and inseparably.

There are in Europe altogether, including a regiment and some sanitary units with the Italian Army and the organizations at Murmansk, also including those en route from the States, approximately 2,053,347 men, less our losses. Of this total there are in France 1,338,169 combatant troops. Forty divisions have arrived, of which the infantry personnel of ten have been used as replacements, leaving thirty divisions now in France organized into three armies of three corps each.

The losses of the Americans up to November 18 are: Killed and wounded, 36,145; died of disease, 14,811; deaths unclassified, 2,204; wounded, 179,625; prisoners, 2,163; missing, 1,160. We have captured about 44,000 prisoners and 1,400 guns, howitzers and trench mortars.

The duties of the General Staff, as well as those of the army and corps staffs, have been very ably performed. Especially is this true when we consider the new and difficult problems with which they have been confronted. This body of officers, both as individuals and as an organization, have, I believe, no superiors in professional ability, in efficiency, or in loyalty.

Nothing that we have in France better reflects the efficiency and devotion to duty of Americans in general than the Service of Supply, whose personnel is thoroughly imbued with a patriotic desire to do its full duty. They have at all times fully appreciated their responsibility to the rest of the army, and the results produced have been most gratifying.

Our Medical Corps is especially entitled to praise for the general effectiveness of its work, both in hospital and at the front. Embracing men of high professional attainments, and splendid women devoted to their calling and untiring in their efforts, this department has made a new record for medical and sanitary efficiency.

Commendation of All Departments.

The Quartermaster Department has had difficult and various tasks, but it has more than met all demands that have been made upon it. Its management and its personnel have been exceptionally efficient, and deserve every possible commendation.

As to the more technical services, the able personnel of the Ordnance Department in France has splendidly fulfilled its functions, both in procurement and in forwarding the immense quantities of ordnance required. The officers and men and young women of the Signal Corps have performed their duties with a large conception of the problem, and with a devoted and patriotic spirit to which the perfection of our communications daily testifies. While the Engineer Corps has been referred to in another part of this report, it should be further stated that the work has required large vision and high professional skill, and great credit is due their personnel for the high proficiency that they have constantly maintained.

Our aviators have no equals in daring or in fighting ability, and have left a record of courageous deeds that will ever remain a brilliant page in the annals of our army. While the Tank Corps has had limited opportunities, its personnel has responded gallantly on every possible occasion, and has shown courage of the highest order.

The Adjutant General's Department has been directed with a systematic thoroughness and excellence that surpassed any previous work of its kind. The Inspector General's Department has risen to the highest standards, and throughout has ably assisted commanders to the enforcement of discipline. The able personnel of the Judge Advocate General's Department has solved with judgment and wisdom the multitude of difficult legal problems, many of them involving questions of great international importance.

It would be impossible in this brief preliminary report to do justice to the personnel of all the different branches of this organization, which I shall cover in detail in a later report.

The navy in European waters has at all times most cordially aided the army, and it is most gratifying to report that there has never before been such perfect coöperation between those two branches of the service.

As to the Americans in Europe not in the military service, it is the greatest pleasure to say that, both in official and in private life, they are intensely patriotic and loyal, and have been invariably sympathetic and helpful to the army.

Finally, I pay supreme tribute to our officers and soldiers of the line. When I think of their heroism, their patience under hardships, their unflinching spirit of offensive action, I am filled with emotion which I am unable to express. Their deeds are immortat, and they have earned the eternal gratitude of our country.

I am, Mr. Secretary, very respectfully,

JOHN J. PERSHING,
General, Commander-in-Chief,
American Expeditionary Forces.

To the Secretary of War.

CHAPTER LVIII.

THE ARMISTICES AND AGREEMENTS.

What the Central Powers Gave Up on Surrender—The Stern German Agreement—Austria's Sacrifice—Bulgaria—Turkey.

THE first big factor leading to the immediate collapse of the German defence as a whole was the surrender of Bulgaria. The whole military and political organization of the country gave way and on September 29 Bulgaria surrendered. The conditions imposed were purely military and included the evacuation of Serbia and Greek territory, the demobilization of the Bulgarian Army, the surrender of transport facilities, permission for the Allies to use all means of communication and to occupy strategic points.

This permitted Serbian troops to reoccupy their own lands and Turkey was cut off and deprived of German aid at the very time the Sultan's army was being annihilated by the British in Palestine. Austria-Hungary was also opened to the Allies for invasion on a new front at a time when the Italian Army was launching an attack upon the weakened and worn Austrian forces.

Turkey surrendered on October 30, after the brilliant British drive in Palestine in which they advanced 275 miles in little more than a month, during which time 75,000 prisoners were captured. The British had cut the communication lines behind the second Turkish army in Mesopotamia and the Turks were trapped.

Terms of Turkish Surrender.

The main points in the agreement of surrender which the Turks were compelled to accept are:

The opening of the Dardanelles and Bosporus and access to Black Sea. Allied occupation of Dardanelles and Bosporus forts.

Position of mine fields and other obstructions in Turkish waters to be indicated, and assistance given to remove them.

Information concerning mines in the Black Sea be communicated.

Allied prisoners and Armenian interned persons and prisoners to be handed over unconditionally to the Allies.

Immediate demobilization of the Turkish army, except troops for surveillance on frontiers and for maintenance of order.

Surrender of all war vessels in Turkish waters. These ships to be interned in such Turkish port or ports as may be directed, except small vessels for police and similar purposes.

The Allies to occupy strategic points in any situation which threatens their security.

Free use by Allied ships of ports and anchorage in Turkish occupation and denial of their use by the enemy. Similar conditions to apply to Turkish shipping in Turkish waters for purposes of trade and demobilization.

Allied occupation of Taurus tunnel system.

Immediate withdrawal of Turkish troops from northern Persia.

Part of Transcaucasia to be evacuated by Turkish troops, remainder if required.

Wireless, telegraph and cable stations to be controlled by the Allies.

Prohibition against destruction of any naval, military or commercial material.

Facilities are to be given for the purchase of coal, oil, fuel and naval material from Turkish sources.

Surrender of all Turkish officers in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.

Surrender of all garrisons in Hedjaz, Assir, Yemen, Syria and Mesopotamia and withdrawal of Turkish troops from Galicia.

Use of ships and repair facilities at all Turkish ports and arsenals.

Surrender of all ports occupied in Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, including Misurata.

All Germans and Austrians to be evacuated within one month from Turkish dominions.

Compliance with such orders as may be conveyed for the disposal of equipments, arms and ammunition.

An allied representative to be attached to Turkish Ministry of Supplies to safeguard allied interests.

Turkish prisoners are to be kept at the disposal of the Allied Powers.

Turkey to cease all relations with Central Powers.

In case of disorder in Armenia the Allies reserve right to occupy.

Hostilities shall cease from noon Thursday, the 31st of October, 1918.

As Bulgaria and Turkey were experiencing defeat, the only remaining German ally—Austria-Hungary—was in turn being subjected to overwhelming attack. An Italian offensive was begun on October 24. Resistance soon collapsed and hundreds of thousands of prisoners

were taken. The Austro-Hungarians then begged for an armistice, which was granted by the Allies on November 4, under following conditions:

The Austrian Armistice.

Immediate cessation of hostilities by land, by sea and air.

Demobilization of Austro-Hungarian army and immediate withdrawal from Western front.

Evacuation of all territories invaded by Austria-Hungary behind a fixed line. [In general, the territories embraced those long claimed by Italy: the Trentino, Trieste and Dalmatia.] All territory thus evacuated shall be occupied by the forces of the Allies and the United States. Military and railway equipment of all kinds, including coal belonging to or within those territories, to be surrendered.

The Allies shall have the right of free movement over all road and rail and water ways in Austro-Hungarian territory, and shall occupy strategic points necessary to conduct military operations or to maintain order.

Complete evacuation or internment of all German troops within fifteen days.

Administration of evacuated territories of Austria-Hungary entrusted to local authorities under control of the armies of occupation.

Immediate repatriation without reciprocity of all Allied prisoners and interned civilians.

Immediate cessation of hostilities at sea and information to be given as to location of Austro-Hungarian ships.

Surrender of fifteen Austro-Hungarian submarines and of all German submarines in Austro-Hungarian waters. All other submarines to be disarmed and to remain under supervision of the Allies.

Surrender of three battleships, three light cruisers, nine destroyers, twelve torpedo boats, one mine layer, six Danube monitors. Other warships to be disarmed and placed under supervision.

Freedom of navigation of all warships and merchant ships of the Allies in the Adriatic and up the Danube with power to occupy or to dismantle all defense works.

Blockade by the Allies to remain unchanged and all Austro-Hungarian merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture save exceptions which may be made.

Naval aircraft to be concentrated and impactionized.

Evacuation of Italian coasts and ports occupied by Austria-Hungary.

Occupation by the Allies of fortifications and dockyards and arsenal at Pola.

All merchant vessels held by Austria-Hungary belonging to the Allies to be returned.

No destruction of ships or of materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender, or restoration.

All naval and mercantile marine prisoners in Austro-Hungarian hands to be returned without reciprocity.

The German Armistice.

The armistice signed by Germany was framed by the Inter-Allied War Council at Versailles on October 31 and is one of the most remarkable documents of military history. There were at the Versailles Conference Marshal Foch, Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Armies; Premier Lloyd George, of Great Britain; Premier Clemenceau, of France; Premier Orlando, of Italy, and Col. E. M. House, representing President Wilson of the United States. The text of the armistice is:

1. Cessation of operations by land and in the air six hours after the signature of the armistice.

2. Immediate evacuation of invaded countries: Belgium, France, Alsace-Lorraine, Luxemburg, so ordered as to be completed within fourteen days from the signature of the armistice. German troops which have not left the above mentioned territories within the period fixed will become prisoners of war. Occupation by the Allied and United States forces jointly will keep pace with evacuation in these areas. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated in accordance with a note annexed to the stated terms.

3. Repatriation beginning at once and to be completed within fourteen days of all inhabitants of the countries above mentioned, including hostages and persons under trial or convicted.

4. Surrender in good condition by the German Armies of the following equipment: Five thousand guns (2,500 heavy, 2,500 field), 30,000 machine guns, 3,000 minenwerfer, 2,000 aeroplanes (fighters, bombers—firstly D-73s and night bombing machines). The above to be delivered in situ to the Allies and the United States troops in accordance with the detailed conditions laid down in the annexed note.

5. Evacuation by the German Armies of the countries on the left bank of the Rhine. These countries on the left bank of the Rhine shall be administered by the local authorities, under the control of the Allied and United States Armies of occupation. The occupation of these territories will be determined by Allied and United States garrisons holding the principal crossings of the Rhine, Mayence, Coblenz, Cologne, together with bridgeheads at these points in a thirty-kilometre radius on the right bank and by garrisons similarly holding the strategic points

of the region. A neutral zone shall be reserved on the right of the Rhine between the stream and a line drawn parallel to it forty kilometres to the east from the frontier of Holland to the parallel of Gernsheim and as far as practicable a distance of thirty kilometres from the east of the stream from this parallel upon Swiss frontier. Evacuation by the enemy of the Rhine lands shall be so ordered as to be completed within a further period of eleven days, in all nineteen days after the signature of the armistice. All movements of evacuation and occupation will be regulated according to the note annexed.

6. In all territory evacuated by the enemy there shall be no evacuation of inhabitants; no damage or harm shall be done to the persons or property of the inhabitants; no destruction of any kind to be committed. Military establishments of all kinds shall be delivered intact, as well as military stores of food, munitions and equipment not removed during the periods fixed for evacuation. Stores of food of all kinds for the civil population, cattle, etc., shall be left in situ. Industrial establishments shall not be impaired in any way and their personnel shall not be moved. Roads and means of communication of every kind, railroad, waterways, main roads, bridges, telegraphs, telephones, shall be in no manner impaired.

7. All civil and military personnel at present employed on them shall remain. Five thousand locomotives, 50,000 wagons and 10,000 motor lorries in good working order, with all the necessary spare parts and fittings, shall be delivered to the Associated Powers within the period fixed for the evacuation of Belgium and Luxemburg. The railways of Alsace-Lorraine shall be handed over within the same period, together with all pre-war personnel and material. Further material necessary for the working of railways in the country on the left bank of the Rhine shall be left in situ. All stores of coal and material for the upkeep of permanent ways, signals and repair shops left entire in situ and kept in an efficient state by Germany during the whole period of armistice. All barges taken from the Allies shall be restored to them. A note appended regulates the details of these measures.

8. The German command shall be responsible for revealing all mines or delay-acting fuses disposed on territory evacuated by the German troops and shall assist in their discovery and destruction. The German command shall also reveal all destructive measures that may have been taken (such as poisoning or polluting of springs, wells, etc.), under penalty of reprisals.

9. The right of requisition shall be exercised by the Allied and the United States Armies in all occupied territory. The upkeep of the troops of occupation in the Rhineland (excluding Alsace-Lorraine) shall be charged to the German Government.

10. An immediate repatriation without reciprocity, according to

detailed conditions, which shall be fixed, of all Allied and United States prisoners of war. The Allied Powers and the United States shall be able to dispose of these prisoners as they wish.

11. Sick and wounded who cannot be removed from evacuated territory will be cared for by German personnel who will be left on the spot with the medical material required.

12. All German troops at present in any territory which before the war belonged to Russia, Roumania or Turkey shall withdraw within the frontiers of Germany as they existed on August 1, 1914.

13. Evacuation by German troops to begin at once and all German instructors, prisoners, and civilian as well as military agents now on the territory of Russia (as defined before 1914) to be recalled.

14. German troops to cease at once all requisitions and seizures and any other undertaking with a view to obtaining supplies intended for Germany in Roumania and Russia (as defined on August 1, 1914).

15. Abandonment of the Treaties of Bucharest and Brest-Litovsk and of the supplementary treaties.

16. The Allies shall have free access to the territories evacuated by the Germans on their eastern frontier, either through Danzig or by the Vistula, in order to convey supplies to the populations of those territories or for any other purpose.

17. Unconditional capitulation of all German forces operating in East Africa, within one month.

18. Repatriation, without reciprocity, within a maximum period of one month, in accordance with detailed conditions hereafter to be fixed, of all civilians interned or deported who may be citizens of other Allied or Associated States than those mentioned in clause 3, paragraph 19, with the reservation that any future claims and demands of the Allies and the United States of America remain unaffected.

19. The following financial conditions are required: Reparation for damage done. While such armistice lasts no public securities shall be removed by the enemy which can serve as a pledge to the Allies for the recovery or reparation for war losses. Immediate restitution of the cash deposit in the National Bank of Belgium, and in general immediate return of all documents, specie, stocks, shares, paper money, together with plant for the issue thereof, touching public or private interests in the invaded countries. Restitution of the Russian and Roumanian gold yielded to Germany or taken by that power. This gold to be delivered in trust to the Allies until the signature of peace.

20. Immediate cessation of all hostilities at sea and definite information to be given as to the location and movements of all German ships. Notification to be given to neutrals that freedom of navigation in all territorial waters is given to the naval and mercantile marines

of the Allied and Associated Powers, all questions of neutrality being waived.

21. All naval and mercantile marine prisoners of the Allied and Associated Powers in German hands to be returned without reciprocity.

22. Surrender to the Allies and the United States of America of 160 German submarines (including all submarine cruisers and mine-laying submarines), with their complete armament and equipment, in ports which will be specified by the Allies and the United States of America. All other submarines to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allied Powers and the United States of America.

23. The following German surface warships, which shall be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, shall forthwith be disarmed and thereafter interned in neutral ports, or for the want of them, in Allied ports, to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, and placed under the surveillance of the Allies and the United States of America, only caretakers being left on board, namely: Six battle cruisers, ten battleships, eight light cruisers, including two mine layers; fifty destroyers of the most modern type. All other surface warships (including river craft), are to be concentrated in German naval bases to be designated by the Allies and the United States of America, and are to be paid off and completely disarmed and placed under the supervision of the Allies and the United States of America. All vessels of the auxiliary fleet (trawlers, motor vessels, etc.) are to be disarmed.

24. The Allies and the United States of America shall have the right to sweep up all mine fields and obstructions laid by Germany outside German territorial waters, and the positions of these are to be indicated.

25. Freedom of access to and from the Baltic to be given to the naval and mercantile marines of the Allied and Associated Powers. To secure this the Allies and the United States of America shall be empowered to occupy all German forts, fortifications, batteries and defense works of all kinds in all the entrances from the Cattegat into the Baltic, and to sweep up all mines and obstructions within and without German territorial waters, without any question of neutrality being raised, and the positions of all such mines and obstructions are to be indicated.

26. The existing blockade conditions set up by the Allied and Associated Powers are to remain unchanged and all German merchant ships found at sea are to remain liable to capture.

27. All naval aircraft are to be concentrated and immobilized in German bases to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America.

28. In evacuating the Belgian coasts and ports, Germany shall

abandon all merchant ships, tugs, lighters, cranes and all other harbor materials, all materials for inland navigation, all aircraft and all materials and stores, all arms and armaments, and all stores and apparatus of all kinds.

29. All Black Sea ports are to be evacuated by Germany; all Russian war vessels of all descriptions seized by Germany in the Black Sea are to be handed over to the Allies and the United States of America; all neutral merchant vessels seized are to be released; all warlike and other materials of all kinds seized in those ports are to be returned and German materials as specified in clause 28 are to be abandoned.

30. All merchant vessels in German hands belonging to the Allied and Associated Powers are to be restored in ports to be specified by the Allies and the United States of America without reciprocity.

31. No destruction of ships or of materials to be permitted before evacuation, surrender or restoration.

32. The German Government will notify the neutral Governments of the world, and particularly the Governments of Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Holland, that all restrictions placed on the trading of their vessels with the Allied and associated countries, whether by the German Government or by private German interests, and whether in return for specific concessions such as the export of shipbuilding materials or not, are immediately cancelled.

33. No transfers of German merchant shipping of any description to any neutral flag are to take place after signature of the armistice.

34. The duration of the armistice is to be thirty days, with option to extend. During this period, on failure of execution of any of the above clauses, the armistice may be denounced by one of the contracting parties on forty-eight hours' notice.

35. This armistice to be accepted or refused by Germany within seventy-two hours of notification.

CHAPTER LIX.

THE ARMY OF OCCUPATION.

The Start Toward the Rhine—Heroic American Troops Comprise Third Army of Occupation—King Albert and the Queen of Belgium at Antwerp and Brussels—Marshal Petain at Metz—General Pershing in Luxemburg—Flags and Bunting Fly—Enthusiasm Everywhere—Into Germany.

MEMORIES of the war can bring to the minds of men in the coming years few pictures more impressive than that of the passing of the Army of Occupation over the picturesque highways of Belgium, Luxemburg and Alsace-Lorraine. Nothing more clearly demonstrated the unity of purpose which dominated the Allied nations in their resistance to the Huns than the march through the war-worn regions of men drawn from the furthermost corners of the earth, whose single mission was the maintenance of order. But a short while before they had exerted their energies toward the utter destruction of other men. Now, though still armed with the weapons of destructive war, they pressed forward with stern tranquillity, the chosen military police force of the Allied nations bent merely upon protecting property and enforcing peace.

Men, they were, who, in the bitterest struggle of all times, unflinchingly faced death that freedom might endure and those who came after might live in peace and security. Hero medals adorned many breasts in the long lines of marching men, and sleeves innumerable contained the stripe which told of wounds suffered for humanity.

The armistice signed by Germany provided that the Allied Armies and designated troops of the American Expeditionary Force, constituting the Army of Occupation, should keep pace in their forward movements with the advance made by the German soldiers in their evacuation of France and Belgium.

With the actual hostilities at an end no time was lost by the army in moving toward the designated points along the left bank of the famous river Rhine, where they were destined to maintain order and administer affairs until the conclusion of all peace arrangements.

The German military authorities had complained that it would be impossible to withdraw their troops with the rapidity and in accord-

ance with the schedule of movement provided for by the armistice. Nevertheless there was no delay and the invaders started their departure promptly on Tuesday, November 12, the day after the signing of the armistice.

A period of fifteen days was allowed for the withdrawal of the Germans from the invaded territory, but within ten days the defeated forces had fallen back sufficiently to permit the Allied soldiers to penetrate beyond Brussels and into Luxemburg, and at some points to the line of the Rhine on the Swiss border.

In this period the American, British and French troops progressed forty miles and the Belgians fifty miles. Antwerp was reached by King Albert of Belgium on November 17; Brussels on November 22 and Strassburg on November 23. On every advance the troops were received with ovations, and in this territory particularly the Belgians and French were greeted with wild enthusiasm and proclaimed liberators. At Antwerp and Brussels there were formal receptions and celebrations, in which the love of the people for King Albert was manifest. Streets were overhung with flags and bunting, bells were rung and the entrance of the troops marked long to be remembered holidays.

Forward Movement of the Army of Occupation.

The American Army of Occupation, which was formally designated the Third Army, in command of General John T. Dickman, began its actual forward movement on November 17. The units forming the army were chosen with regard to the part they played in bringing about the defeat of the Germans. The divisions leading were the Second and Third of the corps commanded by General Haines, together with selected divisions of the Third and Fourth Corps, General Muir commanding.

These divisions were supported by others. The Forty-second Division, commanded by General MacArthur, supported the Third Corps, while the Fourth Corps, commanded by General Hirschey, supported the First and Third Divisions. The Second Division was commanded by Major General John A. Lejeune, of the Marine Corps, who was given recognition for the honors he won at Chateau Thierry, St. Mihiel and other points on the front.

The Thirty-second, composed of men from Wisconsin and Michigan and commanded by General Haan, and the Ninetieth were other supporting divisions. The Thirty-second was one of the divisions whose

work on the Marne was heralded to the world. The First and Third Divisions were made up of men of the United States Regular Army. The former was in command of General Frank Parker and the latter under General Preston Brown.

The American troops first entered the Lorraine iron fields on November 18, soon occupying Briey, which was one of the points held so stubbornly by the Germans. The town was decorated and the citizens greeted the troops in mass. Among the decorations was a large American flag which fluttered from an arch under which the troops marched. The flag was made by three little French girls and boasted of eleven stars and seven red and white stripes instead of the usual number. A similar reception greeted the Americans at Virton, a Belgian border town, where the entire populace joined in welcoming the troops and announced their homes were open to them.

Enthusiastic Receptions Everywhere.

It was the same everywhere. Even in Luxemburg, where it had been said there was a strong German sentiment, the Americans were received with loud acclaim. In the mining towns the whistles blew, bells were rung and schools were closed. In the store windows were pictures of President Wilson, President Poincare, Marshal Foch and King Albert of Belgium.

One of the notable receptions was reported from the little Belgian city of Arlon, where long lines of fete trees, decorated with lanterns and festoons of tinsel and flags, were stretched along the streets over which the soldiers marched into the city, which has upward of 18,000 inhabitants. There were home-made American flags and banners and big signs on which there were words of praise and welcome. In this instance the Marines were the ones who enjoyed the hospitality of the citizens.

One of the scenes that will long be remembered was that in Luxemburg when General Pershing reviewed his passing troops from the balcony of the palace of the Grand Duchess, who stood beside him with members of the Cabinet. When General Pershing entered the little Duchy in advance of his troops he received an ovation. Church and school bells were rung and whistles sounded and the streets were filled with cheering citizens. Before the troops arrived the Commander-in-Chief of the American Forces issued a proclamation in which he announced that the soldiers would remain only so long as was necessary.

The troops on their approach were received with loud acclaim. They virtually walked over flower-strewn streets and every one of the soldiers received a bouquet. Nearly two-score societies participated in the ceremonies incident to the entrance of the troops and the streets were lined, while from buildings and overhead flags and bunting fluttered in the breeze.

Probably the most dramatic and picturesque reception was that at old Metz, when the French forces entered on November 18. General Petain, commander of the Tenth Army and who was made Marshal of France by the French Cabinet after hostilities ceased, entered the city at the head of his troops.

Entrance Into Metz.

The ancient place had for forty-seven years been in possession of the Germans, so when Marshal Petain appeared at the head of his columns, astride a white horse and followed by his General Staff, and with aeroplanes soaring overhead, the populace went fairly wild.

Surrounded by a group of generals and superior officers, the Marshal reviewed his troops on the esplanade, taking a position in front of the statue of Marshal Ney. The troops in review included the Thirty-eighth Division Infantry with its artillery supports and the First Corps of Cavalry, together with several escorting squadrons from a Moroccan division and a detachment of tanks.

Here the citizens, given back to the country to which they rightfully belonged, had thrown to the ground the statues of German rulers, including one of William I of Germany and another of Frederick III. The latter had been pulled from his heroic horse and the statue lay broken beside the base on which it had been mounted.

The reception of Kng Albert in the cities of his heroic country was touching. His entry into the various communities was truly triumphal. Together the King and Queen rode into the noble old city of Antwerp on November 19, through thoroughfares lined with rejoicing people. The bells of the great cathedral sent forth their peals and from the windows along the streets a shower of flowers fell upon the conveyance of the royal pair. Belgian soldiers of many battles marched and from aloft silken banners waved. Everywhere there was music and gladness.

So also it was in Brussels and in lesser places, where public procla-

mations were issued announcing the liberation of the peoples from the German military rule. Always the inhabitants received the marching forces with open arms and hailed them "liberators." British, French, Belgians and Americans, it was all the same, though the country was the country of the Belgians and the French.

The American Army concluded its long journey on Sunday, December 9, crossing the historic bridges over the Rhine into Coblenz and the territory designated for their occupancy.

After passing over the five bridges of the Rhine, the Americans deployed for advance over the eighteen-mile arc of control which has Coblenz as its centre. The Twenty-eighth Regiment of the First Division had the premier honor of entering the territory. The Second and Third followed. Later came the Thirty-second and subsequent units.

The advancing American Army was flanked on the left by French troops, two divisions of which were sent into the Coblenz district to give the forces of occupation a more international aspect. The Rhenish people made no demonstration when the soldiers arrived, but there was some protest against the American military order that the city guards, who were soldiers of the old German garrison, would be relieved by Americans and that German officers would no longer be permitted to wear their military uniforms except under written permission.

The general headquarters of the American Army was established at Mayen, Rhenish Prussia, about fifteen miles from Coblenz, during the period of occupation, and the general pacific attitude of the Germans was reflected in the announcements regarding the troop movements published in the German newspapers. One of these, in commenting on the presence of the Americans, said: "The troops are well-behaved. Their intercourse with the people is correct and we willingly admit that the Americans are good fellows."

Coblenz had been one of the German army's large assembling points for heavy artillery during the war, and the arriving Yankees found awaiting them thousands of parts of big German guns which they were called upon to guard. Likewise there were several hundred motor trucks and ammunition in great quantities, together with nearly 1,500 army wagons, all of which ultimately were turned over to the Allies under the terms of the armistice.

CHAPTER LX.

THE WORLD PEACE PLANS.

President Wilson Goes to Attend Paris Conference—Enthusiasm Marks His Arrival—Made Citizen of Paris—The Personnel of the Peace Conference—A League of Nations—The Terms of Peace—Plans for Enforcement.

WITH the gods of war lulled by the signing of the armistice plans were pushed at once for a Peace Conference to be held in Paris at which representatives of the Allied Nations and Neutrals would determine the final terms of peace in accordance with the principles advocated by President Wilson, Premier Lloyd George, of England; Premier Georges Clemenceau, of France, and Premier Orlando, of Italy, and other champions of liberty and freedom.

President Wilson immediately made preparations to attend the conference, and in so doing aroused a considerable protest from Republican leaders, reactionaries and some conservatives who fairly stood aghast at the thought of the Chief Executive of the United States leaving the country during his term in office. Such a step was unprecedented, and it was pointed out that no other President had left the soil of America while in the Executive chair, while some of those who were antagonistic attempted to convince the country that such a move was "illegal" or a violation of the constitutional rules governing the conduct of the President of the United States.

Notwithstanding the opposition, President Wilson went peacefully on with his plans and it was officially announced on November 18 that he would make the trip. This announcement was supplemented on November 29 by the announcement that the representatives at the Peace Conference from the United States would be:

"President Wilson; Secretary of State, Robert Lansing; Hon. Henry White, recent Ambassador to France; Mr. Edward M. House and General Tasker H. Bliss." The latter Chief of Staff of the United States Army.

This announcement was followed by further agitation, and measures were introduced in both Houses of Congress by Republicans declaring that the office of President would be vacated during Mr. Wilson's absence.

Nevertheless, President Wilson departed from New York on the steamship *George Washington* on December 4, accompanied by Mrs. Wilson, and Vice President Marshall was left in Washington as the Guardian of the White House, while President Wilson kept in daily touch by wireless.

The departure of President Wilson was witnessed by thousands of persons from the waterfronts of Manhattan and Staten Island, N. Y. The waters about were filled with craft of all sorts, and while they tooted and whistled a farewell President Wilson stood on the bridge of the *George Washington,* with Mrs. Wilson beside him, and waved his hand and lifted his hat repeatedly to the throngs.

The *George Washington* had as an escort five destroyers of the United States Atlantic Torpedo Flotilla. Outside the New York harbor the United States Superdreadnought *Pennsylvania,* the flagship of Admiral Mayo, commander of the battle fleet, and half a score of destroyers met the *Washington* and acted as escort to a point 100 miles off Sandy Hook. During the journey out Army aeroplanes from Mineola gyrated over the water and added to the inspiring scene.

Those Who Accompanied President Wilson Abroad.

The members of the President's party were, besides Mrs. Wilson: Rear Admiral Cary T. Grayson, U. S. N.; Charles S. Swemm, confidential clerk to the President; Irvin Hoover, head usher at the White House; Miss Edith Benham, secretary to Mrs. Wilson, and George Creel, Chairman of the Committee on Public Information.

There were as guests of President Wilson: Jules J. Jusserand, the French Ambassador and Mme. Jusserand; Count V. Macchi di Cellere, the Italian Ambassador, and the Countess di Cellere; John W. Davis, the new Ambassador to Great Britain, and Mrs. Davis; Rear Admiral H. K. Knapp and Captain William V. Pratt, U. S. N., and press representatives.

Members of the American Peace Commission included Secretary of State Lansing; Henry White, Leland Harrison and Phillip Patchin, assistant secretaries of the commission; Sydney V. Smith, Chief of Bureau, Department of State; William McNeir, Department of State, disbursing officer of the commission; George Harris, assistant disbursing officer; William C. Bullitt, commission attache, and R. O. Sweet, secretary to Secretary Lansing.

There were also of the party Sr. Isaiah Bowman, Territorial Specialist; Allyn Young, specialist on economic resources; Charles H. Haskins, specialist on Alsace-Lorraine and Belgium; Clive Day, on the Balkans; W. E. Lunt, on Northern Italy; R. H. Lord, on Russia and Poland; Charles Seymour, on Austria-Hungary; G. L. Beer, on Colonial History; W. L. Wastermann, on Turkey; Mark Jefferson, Cartographer; Dr. S. E. Mezes, president of the College of New York City; Major James B. Scott, technical adviser; Professor Amos S. Hershey, assistant to Major Scott, together with Brigadier General William H. Harts, Brigadier General Marlborough Churchill, of the Army Intelligence Service, and half a score of officers and attaches of the various groups.

Receptions at Brest and Paris.

The party landed at Brest, France, on December 13. The arrival of the *George Washington* was there the signal for a demonstration which surpassed that which marked the New York departure. The Presidential boat was led by Admiral Mayo's battleship *Pennsylvania* and the *Wyoming,* flying the flag of Vice Admiral Sims. Behind was a string of American and French battleships. Land batteries and guns of the assembled warcraft fired salutes while crowds cheered from quay and hills. The old city was alive with flags and bunting, and President Wilson was given his first welcome as the guest of the French nation. The Mayor of Brest in a few words presented the President with an engrossed address of the Council. As the Presidential party passed through the town American soldiers and great throngs marked the line of route.

The President went direct from there to Paris, where he was greeted with great masses of humanity in the streets. Guns rumbled their salutes, soldiers in stiffened line stood at attention and music filled the air. The formal welcome to President Wilson was extended by President Poincare at the Elysee Palace on December 14, when the French Chief Executive paid a glowing tribute to the assistance rendered by America in the war and to the gallantry and heroism of the American soldiers.

Adhering to the principles which he advocated from the beginning, President Wilson in his reply said: "From the first the thought of the people of the United States turned toward something more than

the mere winning of the war. It turned to the establishment of right and justice. It realized that merely to win the war was not enough; that it must be won in such a way and the questions raised by it settled in such a way as to insure the future peace of the world and lay the foundations for freedom and happiness of its many peoples and nations."

The President during his stay in Paris occupied the home of Prince and Princess Joachim Murat, in Rue de Monceau, which was one of the most imposing and richly furnished in the city. Among other things the house contained many souvenirs of General George Washington, since a niece of General Washington married Prince Achille Murat. The host of the President was a son of Prince Joachim, who was born in Bordentown, N. J., in 1834, and a descendant of Caroline Bonaparte, sister of the Great Napoleon.

Everywhere the President and Mrs. Wilson were received with wild enthusiasm, and the allied and neutral countries adopted resolutions and bade them welcome. In Paris he was officially made a "citizen of Paris" on December 16 and presented with a great gold medal of the city. Mrs. Wilson was given a diamond brooch.

Opening of the Peace Conference.

Enthusiasm equaling that displayed in Paris greeted President Wilson in England, where he was received by King George and entertained at Buckingham Palace with unfeigned cordiality. Outside of London, in the great industrial centers, he was cheered to the echo by workers and crowds to whom he spoke, and when he visited Italy there was a repetition of the scenes which marked his appearance in France and England. Everywhere the newspapers gave full measure of attention to his speeches and his personal appearance, and his characteristics were dealt with in minute detail.

The days preceding the opening of the Peace Conference were the President's busiest, conferring as a member of the Supreme Council with the representatives of the five great powers and delegates to the conference, and discussing the Russian situation with its problem of Bolshevism and the other great issues.

The Peace Conference, which was the most important meeting of world leaders and representatives of the nations the world has ever known, was formally opened in the great Salle de la Paix, Versailles, on Saturday, January 18, 1919.

The proceedings, which were confined to the election of Georges Clemenceau, the French Premier, as permanent chairman of the conference, an address of welcome by the President of the French Republic, Raymond Poincare, and speeches by President Wilson, Lloyd George, the English Premier, and Baron Sonnino, the Italian Foreign Minister, were characterized by expressions of lasting friendship and the apparent determination of the representatives of the various nations to come to an amicable understanding with respect to the problems to be brought before the conference.

Premier Clemenceau Named for the Chairmanship.

The honor of naming Premier Clemenceau for the chairmanship fell to President Wilson, and in his speech he said:

"I would do this as a matter of custom. I would do this as a tribute to the French Republic. But I wish to do it as something more than that. I wish to do it as a tribute to the man.

"France deserves the precedence not only because we are meeting at her capital and because she has undergone some of the most tragical suffering of the war, but also because her capital, her ancient and beautiful capital, has so often been the center of conferences of this sort, on which the fortunes of large parts of the world turned.

"It is a very delightful thought that the history of the world which has so often centered here will now be crowned by the achievements of this conference—because there is a sense in which this is the supreme conference of the history of mankind.

"More nations are represented here than were ever represented in such a conference before. The fortunes of all people are involved. A great war is ended which seemed about to bring a universal cataclysm. The danger is passed. A victory has been won for mankind, and it is delightful that we should be able to record these great results in this place.

"But it is more delightful to honor her in the person of so distinguished a servant."

In all seventy-two seats were provided for the opening session of the Peace Conference. The Salle d'Horloge, rechristened the Salle de la Paix, and one of the most splendid reception rooms in all Europe, had been placed in perfect readiness for the delegates.

First to catch the eye of the plenipotentiaries entering the hall was a statue of peace, holding aloft the torch of civilization. This heroic marble figure stood directly behind the chair of Premier Clemenceau of France, the presiding officer. It seems as if the statue might have been placed in this position to exercise a controlling influence on the deliberations.

In front of the statue was spread the council table, covered with the traditional green baize of diplomacy. This table is in the form of a huge horseshoe. Across the upper end were nine seats of honor, for presiding officer, the vice presidents and premiers. On each side of the two arms of the horseshoe there were fifteen seats, making sixty seats, besides the nine at the head of the table.

Each delegate's chair was upholstered in bright red leather and before each place was a complete equipment of writing materials. The fittings of the room were in white and gold, with a frescoed ceiling bordered by dancing cupids. Four great lustre chandeliers hung from the ceiling, while five large windows, looking out over the Seine River, cast a flood of light over the sumptuous apartment.

Seating the Delegates at the Conference.

Leading from the council room was another large chamber overlooking the gardens. To this room the delegates could retire for consultations. A large table at one end suggested that refreshments would be served there to the delegates.

Further on was a gorgeous state dining room, where luncheon and dinner might be served to the delegates in case protracted sessions are held. The whole suite of rooms was suggestive of elegance and beauty and the artistic taste of the French.

With Premier Clemenceau in the center the places within the horseshoe were reserved or occupied on one side by President Wilson, Vittorio Orlando, Prime Minister of Italy; Stephen Pinchon, French Foreign Minister; Robert Lansing, Secretary of State, United States of America; Baron Makino, Japan; Andrew Bonar Law, Lord Privy Seal, Great Britain; Antonio Salandra, former Prime Minister of Italy; Andrew Tardieu, French High Commissioner to the United States; Henry White, United States delegate; Baron Matsui, Japan, and General Tasker H. Bliss, Chief of Staff of the United States Army. Beginning on the opposite side of Premier Clemenceau there ranged in order

David Lloyd George, the Prime Minister of Great Britain; Marquis Saionji, former Prime Minister of Japan; Arthur J. Balfour, the British Foreign Secretary; Baron Sonnino, Italian Foreign Minister; Louis Klotz, the Minister of Finance, France; Colonel E. M. House, United States delegate; Baron Chinda, Japan; George Nicoll Barnes, the English labor leader; Marquis Salvago Raggi, Italy; Jules Cambon, France, and Count Hayashi, Japan.

Around the outside of the horseshoe were ranged on one side the Belgian, Brazilian, Cuban, Haitien, Peruvian, Portuguese, Serbian, Czecho-Slavokien and Uruguayan delegates and across the wing sat the Siamese, Rumanian, Polish, Liberian, Hedjaz, Guatemalan, Ecuadorean, Chinese and Bolivian delegates.

As the delegates arrived they were met by a fanfare of trumpets and accorded military honors by troops. The Japanese were among the earliest arrivals and they were followed by the Siamese and East Indians in picturesque turbans. The chamber was well filled when President Wilson arrived and he was greeted warmly.

The Main Subjects of the Conference.

A ruffle of drums and blare of trumpets announced the arrival of President Poincare, who was escorted to the head of the table, where he extended greetings while the entire assemblage stood. In his address the French President praised the valor of the troops which defeated the Huns and lauded America for the part she took and for her unselfish motives, referring briefly to the participancy of all the nations who supported the Allies.

President Wilson followed in naming Premier Clemenceau as chairman, and Premier Lloyd George and Baron Sonnino pictured the part France and the great French Premier played in winning the war.

In his address Premier Clemenceau declared that the League of Nations was already in the way of being achieved by the gathering of the conference and announced as the main subjects of the conference:

First—Responsibility of the authors of the war.

Second—Responsibility for the crimes committed during the war.

Third—Legislation in regard to international labor.

On these questions all the powers were invited to present memoirs. Powers having particular interests would present memoirs on territorial, financial and economical questions.

The League of Nations was formally announced as placed at the head of the next full session. No dates for meetings were announced, these being called at the instance of the Supreme Council of the five great powers—England, France, the United States, Italy and Japan.

The second session of the full conference was held on January 25, when President Wilson, as the recognized sponsor for the League of Nations plan, was given the honor of opening the discussion of the subject. He declared that the conference had a solemn obligation to make a permanent settlement. "We are not here alone," he said, "as representatives of governments, but as representatives of peoples, and in the settlement we make we need to satisfy, not the opinions of governments, but the opinion of mankind." Again, to make clear the purpose of acting for the whole peoples, he said: "Select classes of men no longer direct the affairs of the world; but the fortunes of the world are now in the hands of the people."

The League of Nations Committees Appointed.

When the session opened Premier Clemenceau read the resolution calling for the formation of the League of Nations, which was unanimously adopted by the conference. Following President Wilson's speech in support of the resolution, Premier Lloyd George declared that Great Britain was emphatically behind the proposal.

The action of the conference had the effect of setting in motion the machinery for working out the peace plan and establishing the basis upon which the security of the world was to be established. The text of the resolution was as follows:

"It is essential to the maintenance of the world settlement which the associated nations now are met to establish that a League of Nations be created to promote international obligations and to provide safeguards against war. This league should be created as an integral part of the general treaty of peace and should be open to every civilized nation which can be relied on to promote its objects.

"The members of the League should periodically meet in international conference and should have a permanent organization and secretaries to carry on the business of the League in the intervals between the conferences.

"The conference therefore appoints a committee representative of the Associated Governments to work out the details of the constitu-

tion and the functions of the League and the draft of resolutions in regard to breaches of the laws of war for presentation to the Peace Conference.

"That a commission, composed of two representatives apiece from the five great Powers and five representatives to be elected by the other Powers, be appointed to inquire and report upon the following:

"First, the responsibility of the authors of the war; second, the facts as to breaches of the laws and customs of war committed by the forces of the German Empire and their allies on land, on sea and in the air during the present war; third, the degree of responsibility for these offenses attaching to particular members of the enemy's forces, including members of the general staffs and other individuals, however highly placed; fourth, the constitution and procedure of a tribunal appropriate to the trial of these offenses; fifth, any other matters cognate or ancillary to the above which may arise in the course of the inquiry and which the commission finds it useful and relevant to take into consideration."

A striking tribute to President Wilson and America was paid in the naming of the President and Colonel E. M. House to the committee delegated to draft the laws governing the League of Nations.

Other committees named by Premier Clemenceau were:

Responsibility for the War—Great Britain, Sir Gordon Hewart; France, Captain Andrew Tardieu and Ferdinand Larnaude; United States, Robert Lansing, Secretary of State; Italy, Viterio Scialoia and Deputy Raimondo.

Reparation—United States, B. M. Baruch, John W. Davis, Vance McCormick; Great Britain, William Morris Hughes, Sir John Simon, Baron Cunliffe; France, L. L. Klotz, L. P. Locheur, A. F. Lebrun; Italy, Antonio Salandra, General Badoglio; Japan, Baron Makino, Baron Nobuaki.

International Labor Legislation—United States, E. N. Hurley and Samuel Gompers; Great Britain, George Nicoll Barnes and Ian Malcolm; France, M. Colliard and L. P. Locheur; Italy, Signor Des Planches and Signor Cabrini; Japan, M. Otichian and M. Oka.

Regulation of Ports, Waterways and Railroads—United States, Henry White; Great Britain, Sir John Simons; France, Andre Voiss and Albert Claveille; Italy, Signor Grespi and Signor de Martino; Japan, M. Yamakawa and Colonel Sato.

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